

CREATIVE STRATEGIES OF SUCCESSFUL BRANDS
IN THE INTRODUCTION STAGE

By

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To my dear parents
And my beloved brothers,
To whom I owe
What I am today

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the south, the hills are covered with a dense growth of forest, and the soil is fertile.

The climate is temperate, with a maximum temperature of 70° F. and a minimum of 30° F.

The population is about 100,000, and the principal occupations are agriculture and stock raising.

The principal cities are San Francisco, San Jose, and San Diego.

The principal products are wheat, corn, and fruit.

The principal exports are gold, silver, and copper.

The principal imports are sugar, coffee, and tea.

The principal languages spoken are Spanish and English.

The principal religions are Catholicism and Protestantism.

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**CREATIVE STRATEGIES OF SUCCESSFUL BRANDS
IN THE INTRODUCTION STAGE**

By

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Major Department: Advertising

Using the information accessible of various brands of beer, the exploratory study investigated how brand advertising contributes to success in the market place. Through content analysis, the researcher compared advertising content of successful brands with that of less successful brands. Three major elements of creative strategy were analyzed: main message strategy, the emotional variables, and leadership traits. Hypotheses were proposed that there were relationships between these three factors and the success of brands as measured by sales and market share.

It was found that there were significant emotional variables which differentiated brand strategies. The elements concerning the information of a brand, the superiority of the product, and its uniqueness had a positive effect on commercial messages.

Content/leadership traits were found to differentiate the success of brands. These traits included knowledge, strength of associations, and fluency of speech. They represented the credibility of brands.

Message strategies failed to support the hypotheses. Neither did mass message campaigns nor message subcategories significantly make a difference in their relevance scores/ranks.

The results suggest that the advertising of new brands must contain both meaningful content and brilliant creative execution. Meaningful content is demonstrated by the superiority, association, and features of the product, while execution is portrayed by creative/persuasive devices, advertising appeals, and credibility.

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

Strong brands are the real capital of business" (Kapferer, 1992, p. 1); they need to be managed, nurtured, and controlled. Too often, the brand message to customers is weak, confused, inconsistent, or, worst of all, indistinguishable from competitor offerings (Aaker, 1990).

Problems of communicating brand messages arise because some marketers do not understand what "brand" really means and what it really does. According to Riescher (1983), a brand is not a product. A product is something that offers a functional benefit. A brand is a name, symbol, design, or mark which enhances the value of a product beyond its functional purpose. Russell and Lane (1980) explain:

A product is manufactured, a brand is created. A product may be changed over time, but the brand remains. A brand exists only in and through communication. The communication of the brand produces its singular and durable identity, its longevity as a brand. It is a stimulus not sufficient for a brand to produce a motivating (buying of the product, for similar products are always equal or better). The brand must be desired from its competitors. In fact, it is the competitors that help form the brand's identity. A brand is a memory bank carrying all its history, which constitutes its accumulated capital (p. 37).

Strong brands are the result of long-term management (Aaker, 1990; Armstrong, 1998; Kapferer, 1992). "Companies must have long marketed or new products, packaging, advertising, and other marketing communications in a consistent way to build a good relationship with consumers" (Armstrong, 1998, p. 23). According to Riescher (1983), a major factor involved in the concept of brand management is the time sequence.

Managing a brand raises three critical questions: How do you build a strong brand? How do you sustain that brand over time? How can you expand a business by leveraging your brand?

The Brand Concept Management (BCM) proposed by Park, Jaworski, and MacInnis (1984) offers a process for managing a brand. This framework consists of sequential stages of selecting, introducing, elaborating, and fortifying the brand image. Park et al. (1984) suggest that a brand image is the understanding consumers derive from the totality of brand-related activities of the firm. Once a brand has generated a consumer image, it becomes a strong brand. They add that communication strategy implemented by the marketer must enable consumers to understand a brand image in the introductory stage. The strategy must make consumers perceive the value of the brand in the elaboration stage. Finally, a firm is able to transfer the brand value and image to other products produced by the firm in the fortification stage.

All marketing communications should be devoted to the brand-building activities and contribute to the long-term investment in the reputation of the brand (Belk, 1993). Advertising, as part of Integrating Marketing Communications (IMC) tools, can play a major role in creating, building, or maintaining a long-term image for a brand. Cohn-Wagner, Balda, and Bouska (1993) point out that advertising can generate brand awareness and increase the probability that the product will be included in the consumer's evoked set. Advertising adds value to brands and influences how consumers view the product.

In the introductory stage, an image of a brand must be established. Advertising's role in this stage is to make people aware of the newly introduced brand and to communicate its benefits to prospective buyers.

The primary purpose of advertising in the elaboration stage is to communicate the brand differentiation and/or adjustment of the product to the consumer. Another goal is to foster brand associations so they will create a positive consumer's attitude that will later become a link to a brand (Julien, 1997).

In the distribution stage, the important role of advertising is to transfer value of the already-known brands to brand extensions and reinforce the image of that "mother brand."

The introductory stage is a critical period. The brand image created in this stage must be extended easily and logically during the subsequent stages. Marketers must plan how the brand can be used as a platform for new products and extensions.

Since the role of advertising planning leads directly to the development of creative strategy, advertising messages are a part of the management of a brand. According to Moriarty (1991), several branding elements such as distinctive brand names, short phrases and catch words, striking visuals, and brand characters and symbols are used to anchor the brand in memory. These elements can be communicated in advertising messages. The visuals, words and characters combine to create a brand image or brand personality. Over time these elements build brand equity, which refers to the value of the ownership of the brand concept. Ultimately this builds share of market and sales—the bottom-line results of linking certain values with specific products and services (Moriarty, 1991).

The purpose of this study is to measure how brand advertising contributes to success in the NCM introduction stage. The research sought to identify the operational variables in television advertising management in successful roll-out brands. Because decisions regarding advertising mix, amount, and strategy are not made in a vacuum (Klein, 1997), the results will be useful in planning advertising for the introduction of new brands.

CHAPTER 2 REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Lee-Burnett (as cited in Purohit et al., 1996, p. 142) said, "if you want to be different, you can come down in the morning with a smile in your mouth." It is easy to be different in advertising, but it is not so easy being different and on strategy at the same time. The key to an effective creative idea is to have it be both unique and on strategy (Purohit et al., 1996, pp. 142-143).

It is widely believed that creative strategy "holds a very power" (Engel, Wardlaw, & Sasane, 1983, p. 175) over the potential effectiveness of an advertising campaign. Nevertheless, there has never been a single answer to the question "How does advertising work?" because advertising, as an idea, is as wide and varied as the rational and emotional concepts. The typologies of creative strategies which must also vary from simple, useful ones for describing the general nature of messages, to more rhetorical schemes denoting specific differences among messages (Corley, 1994).

The term "creative strategy" has been also defined in various ways in advertising literature. According to Rossiter and Percy (1987), creativity in advertising is largely a matter of selecting stimuli or advertisements that will have a high probability of being processed correctly by the decision makers so that they will produce the required communication effects. From a management perspective, Fraser (1983) defines

Creative strategy is a policy or guiding principle which specifies the general nature and character of messages to be designed. Strategy states the means selected to achieve the desired audience effect over the term of the campaign (p. 26).

Thayer (1980) adds that creative strategy is most often the job of agency creative people to formulate and execute advertisements. At the managerial level, it is important to establish and evaluate message policy. Thayer believes that the advertising strategy sets the tone, which other promotional elements follow. Elements such as sales promotion are employed to further and integrate the creative strategy of advertising.

Although the meaning of creative strategy has been defined in different ways, the two concepts of *message content* and *method of presentation* are predominantly evaluated, one notion of creative strategy referred to by most researchers. In this sense, creative strategy encompasses *what is said* in advertisements as well as *how it is said*. Creative strategy consists of *message content* and *execution* (Ray, 1988; Sharp & DeLeonis, 1989).

Although there are some arguments about the tightness of *message content* and *execution*, Ascarl, Berra, and Myers (1994, p. 458) state that "both [message content and execution] are necessary—a message must be both in strategy in terms of 'what' it is communicating and tightly creative in 'how' it communicates that message. Thus, the best advertising combines both meaningful content and brilliant creative execution."

Thomas Holbrook's Creative Strategy

Moskaly (1994, p. 31) suggests that "[to] order to do advertising that works it is helpful to understand how advertising works and that is [to understand] the psychology of advertising." Advertisers and researchers should understand advertising effects and consumer processing in order to develop advertising that works.

According to Kotler and Percy (1987, p. 314), processing refers to “immediate responses or elements of effectiveness that occur during exposure to the ad. Appropriate processing responses have to occur in order to establish or maintain communication effects, which are enduring responses associated with the brand.” Exposure to attitude toward the ad can lead to brand attitude. As a result, it can lead to other behavioral advertising variables such as intent to purchase or loyalty.

For the purposes of this study, the Hierarchy of Effects Model, involvement concept, Elaboration Elaborated Model of attitude change, and Integration models are reviewed in order to understand how a consumer processes the persuasive messages. The implications of consumer processing as applied to the selection of content strategies are also discussed.

Hierarchy of Effects Model

Lavidge and Steiner (1961) proposed the Hierarchy of Effects model, which explains the long-term effects of advertising. The model consists of a sequence of mental and response stages which an audience member is supposed to experience during a communication program (Raj, 1973). According to Lavidge and Steiner (1961), ultimate consumers normally do not reach from *disorganized* individuals to *committed* purchasers in one instantaneous step. Rather, they approach the ultimate purchase through a process or series of steps in which the actual purchase is but the final threshold.

In this model, advertising is proposed to be a communication tool that can lead an audience member or a consumer from unconscious to awareness through a series of mental steps. These steps are knowledge, liking, preference, conviction, and purchase.

(Lundberg & Sasser, 1983). These steps can be conceptualized into three major components: cognitive (what), affective (feel), and conative (do).

To understand how advertising works, it is necessary to explore the psychological people have for thinking, feeling, and behaving toward the various products and services in their lives (Vaughan, 1988). This model explains that there are three major tasks which creative strategies should contribute to accomplish advertising objectives. The first task is communication. Emotional elements such as first and largest or special effects can capture and retain a consumer's attention. Mass message strategies, such as comparative, prescriptive, or Unique Selling Proposition (USP), can help the audience members learn something new or gain an improved understanding or memory of some fact. The second task is association. Message strategies, such as brand image or cue response, can link a brand to a concept. Emotional elements, such as music choice, visual direction, pace and nature of editing, and color schemes can all contribute substantially to a brand's personality (Jaker et al., 1996). The ultimate goal of advertising is persuasion. Brand messages substantially attract strategies can, over a period of time, lead to a favorable consumer attitude toward a brand.

Theories of Involvement

Advertising effects do not inevitably follow the process in the hierarchy of Effects Model. There are many variables which determine the extent to which the consumer will process the message and how information is felt. The involvement is one of those variables which has received much attention from researchers.

There is no commonly agreed definition of involvement. Involvement has been referred to in terms of age, product, product class, message, message response, advertising, advertising message, advertising execution, advertising content, consumer processing, decision-making, consumer motivation, consumer personality, race, and life involvement (Muehling, Laczniak & Andrews, 1991). Regardless of these conceptual differences, there is substantial agreement that the degree to which the consumer is "involved" is of critical importance in determining which part of advertising will shape the consumer's final attitude toward the brand (Ataker et al., 1990).

It is commonly agreed that consumers are more highly involved when they consider the message content more relevant (high motivation), when they have the knowledge and experience to think about the message content (high ability), and when the environment in which that message content is presented does not interfere with such thinking (high opportunity). The motivational involvement factor is determined by the individual's intrinsic level of interest in the product category (involvement), as well as more temporary factors, such as how close the consumer is to a purchase in that category and the degree of perceived risk in making a purchase in that category (situational involvement).

Although there are various definitions of involvement, the definition of involvement suggested by Rosentz, Frey, and Gornowicz (1981) seems to be appropriate to the concept of a brand. They define involvement as "the risk perceived by the typical target audience member—who could range from a completely naive nontechnology user to a very experienced loyal buyer of the brand—in choosing this brand or this (the next) purchase occasion" (Rosentz et al., 1981, p. 14). The first factor in which involvement

with the brand purchase decision must vary in target audience familiarity, which translates into knowledge or “ability to choose”.

Knowing an already known brand name or brand extension could reduce the level of risk to the consumer (Aaker et al., 1986). To cut down the degree of involvement, Aaker et al. (1986) point out that companies use line extensions not only to reduce the costs of a new brand name, but also to boost acceptance and trial.

Aaker et al. (1986) explain the general role of advertising in the involvement strategy. In high involvement situations, advertisers should first create advertising to generate awareness, follow up with a campaign to change attitudes, and subsequently aim to induce trial usage. In high involvement situations, it may be better for ads to provide strong “reason why” the brand is superior. It is more to use rational creative approaches rather than transformational strategies.

In low involvement situations, product adoption can be characterized as occurring through gradual shifts in perceptual structure aided by repetitive advertising in a low-involvement medium, activated by behavioral choice situations, and followed at some time by a change in attitude. In these situations, it may be more appropriate to create ads that raise awareness and change brand attitudes through motivational labeling and credibility. Emotional content approaches seem to be most appropriate.

Elaboration-Elaboration Model

The Elaboration-Elaboration Model (ELM) is a theory about the processes responsible for yielding to persuasive information. Petty and Cacioppo (1981) propose an explanation of the process of persuasion. Their model, the Elaboration-Elaboration

Model of attitude change (ELM), postulates that persuasive information is processed via a central or a peripheral route.

When the likelihood of elaboration is increased (as determined by factors such as the personal relevance of the message and the number of times it is repeated), the perceived quality of the issue-relevant arguments presented becomes a more important determinant of persuasion. The consumer can consciously and diligently consider the information provided in the ad as forming attitudes toward the advertised brand. Attitudes are changed or formed by careful consideration, thinking, and integration of information relevant to the product or object of the advertising. As the elaboration likelihood is decreased, peripheral cues become more important.

Petty and Cacioppo (1981) have proposed the idea which predicts when the person will cognitively elaborate and follow the central route. Two key factors identified in the ELM as significant are a person's motivation and ability to process information. People are most likely to process centrally when both motivation and ability are high. When either is low, peripheral processing is more likely.

Integrative Models

Some researchers combine the cognitive, experiential, and affect components in integrative groupings, sometimes with different hierarchies according to the product category (Valentine & Ashlin, 1996). Two well-known advertising models are the Pears-Carey & Berding (PCR) Grid (Vaughan, 1982) and the Rosser-Petty-Grid (Rosser et al., 1981).

The FCB Grid

Vaughan (1980) at *Pearce, Fennell & Belling* derived the FCB model, which is a two-by-two matrix, where one axis represents thinking versus feeling message types, and the other axis represents high-versus low-involvement products. The basic premise of the model is that consumer entry into a product should be determined for information (know), attitude (feel) and behavior (act) stages to develop advertising. The priority of focus over time, first over learn, or do over either learn-feel, has implications for advertising strategy, creative execution, media plan, and copy testing.

	THINKING	FEELING
HIGH	1 INFORMATION e.g. Cars, Houses, New Products MODEL: Learn-Feel-Do MEDIA: Long Copy Format P: Rationale/Volunteer C: CREATIVE Information and Demonstration	2 AFFECTIVE e.g. Jewelry, Fashion, Motorcycles MODEL: Feel-Learn-Do MEDIA: Large Visual Image Appeals CREATIVE: Emotional Impact
LOW	3 HABIT FORMATION e.g. Food, Household Items MODEL: Do-Learn-Feel MEDIA: Small Space Ads P-O-S: CREATIVE: Reminder	4 SELF-SATISFACTION e.g. Cigarettes, Candy, Liquor MODEL: Do-Feel-Learn MEDIA: Billboards, P-O-S: and Newspapers CREATIVE: Attention

Figure 2.11 FCB Planning Model (Vaughan 1980, 1985)

In this model, four quadrants are developed as alternatives. The quadrants incorporate four potentially major goals for advertising, to be informative, to induce effective responses, to be habit forming, or to promote self-satisfaction (Vaughn, 1983) as shown in the Figure 2.1.

Quadrant 1 (as shown in Figure 2.1) represents the information strategy for highly involving products or services where thinking and associated costs/benefits prevail. It represents high importance/thinking which requires a great need for information as regard to the importance of the product and thinking issues related to it. The classical hierarchy-of-effects sequence advocated in LEARN-FEEL-DO is the designated model for high-involvement such as cars, appliances, and insurance (Vaughn, 1983, 1984).

Quadrant 2 represents the affective strategy, which is for those highly involving and feeling purchases, those more psychological products building self-esteem, self-confidence, and ego-related impulses requiring perhaps more emotional communication. In the high importance/feeling quadrant, the strategy of FEEL-LEARN-DO maximizes emotional involvement on the part of the consumers (Vaughn, 1983, 1984).

Quadrant 3 represents the habitual strategy, which is for those low involvement and thinking products with such conditioned consumer behavior that learning occurs most often after exploratory trial buying. The strategy model is a DO-LEARN-FEEL pattern achieved by providing a reminder for the product (Vaughn, 1983, 1984).

Quadrant 4 represents the satisfaction strategy, which is for low involvement/feeling products, some of personal taste such as beer, cigarettes, and candy

This is a DO-BEEL-LEARN strategic model because product experience is a necessary part of the communication process (Vaughn, 1988, 1989).

According to the PCB model, an advertising strategy is determined by specifying (a) the consumer's point-of-entry on the LEARN-BEEL-DO continuum and (b) the importance of brand versus that versus the the making a sale. Specifically, the strategy issue is whether to develop product features, brand usage, or some combination of both. Applying the matrix in practice suggests that the marketing strategy and analysis of the consumer decision should together shape advertising strategy (Vaughn, 1988).

The Rosentz-Perry Grid

Rosentz et al. (1981) offer an improvement on the PCB grid with the notable expansion of the PCB study research that acknowledges not only many more "moments" as to why consumers might seek to buy brands in different product categories. They then show how ads can be designed to address each buying motive.

As shown in Figure 3-2, the Rosentz-Perry Grid posits brand awareness as a necessary communication objective for advertising, prior to brand attitude. Brand attitude without prior brand awareness is an insufficient advertising communication objective. The Rosentz-Perry approach focuses on brand awareness in terms of brand recognition, where the brand is chosen at the point of purchase and brand recall, where the brand in order to be chosen, must be remembered before the point of purchase.

After brand awareness issues are determined, the next step is the Rosentz-Perry Grid involves brand attitude strategy. In the Rosentz-Perry model, the grid again has four cells, with low and high involvement crossed with informational or transformational

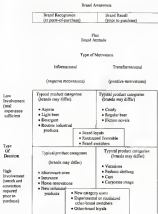


Figure 2.1 The Awareness-Plan Grid (Kassar et al., 1994)

notion. In this case, ads either low involvement-informational quadrant need to focus on one or two key benefits, perhaps emphasizing them enough to provide a lead position, and use a simple problem solution format without being concerned about hierarchy. Ads either high-involvement-informational quadrant need convincing and logical brand claims, perhaps using rational or comparative formats. Ads in the low-involvement-motivational cell needs unique and substantial emotional benefit, delivered through a frequently repeated theme of which might use the "dream" format.

In the fourth high-involvement-motivational cell, the Rosser Perry model suggests that an ad must not simply be liked but also create a feeling of lifestyle identification for the consumer, with some supportive "hard information" format as. High repetition may be needed here.

In summary, the classic related to creative strategies, hierarchy of effects model, theories of involvement, ELM model and integrative models, indicate that when consumers are highly involved in a purchase and are knowledgeable about the product category rational creative approach might be appropriate. On the other hand, when consumers lack the motivation and ability to process such based information, emotional creative approach along with ad execution plays a major role in a consumer's attitude change.

According to Vakratsas and Ashior (1994), although these hierarchy models can be seen as tools used by academics and market researchers for measurement and understanding, no one model fits all advertising types and consumers. They also suggest that time experience and emotional and rational response format to shape an individual's

response to an advertising message is more important than the order in which they are received)

Creative Strategy Typologies

A number of classification schemes have been developed to classify various types of creative strategies which might be employed in the advertising of consumer products (Larkey, Day and Crank, 1989). Nevertheless, most typologies of creative strategies focus on the general nature of messages, rather than on various executional options. This is probably because typologies which include both message and executional options would quickly become unwieldy and hence of little practical value (Larkey et al., 1989).

According to Larkey et al. (1989), a 'good' classification scheme or typology should be mutually exclusive and exhaustive, all creative strategies should be able to be categorised in one, but only one, category. Furthermore, the typology should capture meaningful differences between creative executions while rendering perceptions fluidly. A typology should be operational: creative strategies should be consistently categorised according to the rules for classification.

Aaker and Norris (1982) propose a relatively simple, but meaningful, taxonomy of generalised message types: image/emotional/feeling versus informational/rational/cognitive. In studying information sources in television advertisements, they use informationness as the dependent variable and try to determine what an advertisement is perceived as informative.

However, Larkey et al. (1989) suggest that the Aaker and Norris typology does not meet the generally accepted requirements for a useful typology. This is, good

creative strategies should be mutually exclusive, exhaustive, and able to be categorized as one but only one, category (Lasker et al., 1987). Despite these clear-cut requirements, what is not clear from this early typology is whether creative messages can be strictly classified as solely either image or informational. However, Vaughn (1986) is strongly convinced that advertising must contain both rational and emotional elements in order to be effective.

Unlike Lasker and Morris (1982), Simon (1977) develops a more elaborate typology of message types. His approach to classify message types consists of the following ten categories of messages: information ("news about" the product), argument (reasons to buy the product), motivation with psychological appeals (emotional statements of how the product will benefit the consumer), repeated statement (a repetition of basic information without factual proof), statement (a "rational" statement persuading the consumer), brand familiarization (a focus on the brand name), symbolic association (a link of the product to positive things), imitation (a statement by a celebrity or unknown individual), obligation (reasons of a free gift or offer), and latent meaning (an offer of a sample or reduced price to induce buying).

Simon's typology appears to be exhaustive when paired categorizing television commercials. Fletcher and Zenger (1978) found that more than one of Simon's strategy categories often appear in a single print advertisement. The mutual exclusivity criterion is in question. Simon's typology appears to capture elements of both mass message and creative execution (Lasker et al., 1987).

Fraser (1974) also develops a managerial-oriented typology of creative strategies. Fraser discusses seven creative strategy alternatives. First, general strategy means

making claims that could be made by virtually all brands in the product category. There is no assertion of brand superiority. The second strategy is *prospective strategy* or *generic claim* with assertion of superiority. The claims involving a product or service attribute or user benefit common to all or to that. The strategy forces competitors into the "hot war" position, or into strategies based on physical or psychological differentiation which may be hard to achieve. Third, *unique selling proposition strategy (USP)* involves no superiority claims based on unique physical product characteristics and/or benefits. Fourth, *brand image strategy* is a claim of superiority or distinction based on psychological differentiation, which is usually symbolic associations. The fifth strategy is *positioning strategy* which is an attempt to build or occupy a mental niche in relation to an identified competitor. The sixth strategy is the *response strategy* or an attempt to evoke desired responses of prospective consumers to give the product relevant meaning or significance. Finally, *associative/benefactive strategy* refers to attempts to provide involvement or reactions through ambiguity, "humor" or the like, without strong selling emphasis.

Like Senoff's typology, Fraser's appears to be exhaustive and to provide a reasonable number of categories. The problems of exclusivity of categories and consistency of classification arise when codes attempt to categorize certain commercials which exemplify more than one message type (Lasker et al., 1987).

None of these classification schemes were found to be useful when the commercials were categorized for a research project relating to advertising effectiveness (Lasker et al., 1987). In addition, none of the current typologies met the criteria for determining a "good" typology (Lasker et al., 1986).

Lasley's Typology

Research has shown that while advertisements often contain several messages, the most messages can be reliably coded as either informational or transformational (Lasley et al., 1988). The informational versus transformational distinction was first articulated by William D. Wells, research director of Newbury, Harper & Stone advertising agency. Puto and Wells (1983, p. 433) define informational advertising as that which "provides consumers with factual, relevant brand data in a clear and logical manner such that they have greater confidence in their ability to assess the merits of buying the brand after having seen the advertisement." On the other hand, transformational advertising is defined as that which "associates the experience of using the advertised brand with a unique set of psychological characteristics which would not typically be associated with the brand experience in the same degree without exposure to the advertising" (Puto & Wells, 1983, p. 433).

In order to facilitate identifying a single-dimensional stimulus, such as a television commercial, Lasley et al. (1988) design a two-stage approach in which advertisements were first placed into one of Puto and Wells's two basic categories, informational or transformational, based on the primary focus of the main message, and then placed into one of several subcategories.

Lasley, Day, and Cook's typology consists of informational advertising and transformational advertising. Within the informational category are five subcategories of message strategies (Lasley et al., 1988). The comparative category mentions the competition explicitly. The superior selling proposition category uses explicit claims of superiority. The prescriptive category offers favorable claims of superiority based on an

attribute or benefit. The hyperbolic strategy offers credible claims of superiority based on an attribute or benefit. The generic strategy focuses on a product class rather than on a particular brand. Table 3-1 shows Ladley's typology of mass message strategies. This typology involves two main categories: informational advertising and transformational advertising.

Table 3-1

Ladley's Typology of Mass Message Strategies

INFORMATIONAL ADVERTISING	
Competitive: competitors explicitly mentioned	
Unique Selling Proposition: explicit claim of uniqueness	
Preemptive: credible claim of superiority based on an attribute or benefit	
Hyperbolic: credible claim of superiority based on an attribute or benefit	
Generic: focus on product class	
TRANSFORMATIONAL ADVERTISING	
User Image: focus on user	
Brand Image: focus on brand personality	
Use Occasion: focus on usage occasions	
Generic: focus on product class	

(Ladley et al., 1997)

Unlike informational advertisements, transformational messages are not information-based; they contain a dominant psychological element. The first

transformational subcategories correspond to a primary focus on either persons, places, or things, respectively. The user image category focuses on the users of a brand and their lifestyles. The main thrust of these commercials is companies who use the brand, rather than on the brand itself. The brand image category focuses primarily on the image of the brand itself as an company convey a brand "personality." The third category called an occasion focuses primarily on the experience of using the brand, or on those situations where use of the brand is most appropriate. Finally, the fourth category is generic which focused on the product class and is clearly transformational (Lasker, et al., 1987).

Lasker's typology was tested through the coding of nearly 500 television commercials over a wide range of consumer packaged goods. The results show that the typology not only appears to be mutually exclusive and exhaustive but also seems to provide reliable classification results (Lasker et al., 1987).

Emotional Elements in Advertising Messages

According to Figure 1 (1987, p. 10), the emotional variable is defined as "a copy or production device (e.g., appeal, format, casting, message content visual effects) used in combination with other similar advertising variables to carry out the creative strategy of an advertisement." The term can also be applied to radio and television.

It is difficult to articulate all aspects of advertising execution as well as explain "how to say" advertising messages exhaustively. For this study the emotional devices are reviewed in two classifications. The first is the emotional variables which related to advertising-commercial effectiveness such as recall, comprehension, or persuasion. The second is the personality traits communicated in commercials. These traits are reported

to be significant drivers of advertising that can be incorporated in communications as well as other advertising executional elements

Executional Elements Related to Advertising Effectiveness

To understand what makes for a persuasive commercial is a major challenge to advertising researchers (Young & Rubicam, 1992). Thus, the impact of specific classes of executional factors on measures of advertising performance has been the focus of a considerable amount of research. Pioneering studies by Diamond (1944) and Trench (1953) and more recent studies by Holbrook and Lehman (1994) and Rossner (1995), and Yalowitz (1993) have examined the impact of executional elements on the recognition and recall of print advertising.

Edell and Staelin (1983), Lutz and Lutz (1987) and Petty and Rossner (1988) have investigated the impact of persuasive phenomena on advertising response. The influence of music in advertising has also received considerable attention (Goss, 1982; Holop, Robertson, & Baldwin, 1989; Shaples, 1988; Frost and Lockard, 1994). These studies are just a few of many in a long tradition of research on the influence of specific executional elements and appeals in advertising (Barnett & Kotler, 1980).

Among the more comprehensive of the studies of executional factors, and one of the first to examine television advertising agencies, is a study reported by Stewart and Fure (1984). It examined more than 150 executional elements and their impact on three measures of advertising performance: aided recall, brand comprehension, and purchase, within a set of 1,435 television commercials.

The Stewart and Farris study concludes that a unique product message or brand differentiating message was, by far, the most important single factor in determining both recall and persuasion, though the authors also noted that no single emotional factor appeared to account for more than a small percentage of the variance in these measures.

Furthermore, they clearly measured factors which exhibited a significant positive or negative association with at least one of the three measures of advertising effectiveness, and shed light on the nature of the relationships between recall, comprehension, and persuasion measures.

Summary of the Studies of the Emotional Variable

There are several studies of the emotion dimension related to commercial effectiveness, but only seven major studies involving the impact of emotional factors on television advertising are reviewed in this study. Two of these are proprietary sources (Haley & Ross, 1962; McCullum & Spelman, 1976). The other five are currently available in widely-disseminated journals (Haley, Richardson & Bullock, 1964; McEwan & Lewis, 1974; McElreath, 1982; Oglevy & Rappaport, 1982; and Stewart & Farris, 1984). The latter four studies include persuasion as a dependent variable.

The Oglevy and Rappaport (1982) study is a summary report of proprietary research conducted by Haley and Ross (1962). The Haley, Richardson, and Bullock (1964) study was the first step of a two-part study. The McElreath (1982) study did not report the negative variables. Independently, Oglevy and Rappaport (1982) and Stewart and Farris (1984) found similar emotional variables with a positive impact on persuasion. On the other hand, the researchers of the four studies conclude that

emotional devices which overclaim the message are negatively related to both recall and persuasion. They also agree that short stories, lots of characters, and denouement scenes are negatively related to persuasion. Only two studies (Madduxes, 1988; Stewart & Fure, 1989) report the statistical significance of their findings. Only the Stewart and Fure (1989) study was replicated. Appendix A lists the summary of studies of the emotional elements related to advertising effectiveness.

Unlike other studies, Stewart and Fure do not merely examine the impact of emotional elements on the three measures of advertising performance, but they also compare the effectiveness new product and established product commercials. The results were further analyzed into a prediction of new and established commercials.

In general, Stewart and Fure's findings reveal that the factors related more positively to recall or comprehension of new product commercials were humor, sensory devices, demonstration of the product in use, brand prominence, and user satisfaction. Factors more positively related to new product persuasion are relevant setting, brand prominence, sensory sensory devices, and comprehension in use. Factors related more to positively established product persuasion involve relevant comparisons, substantive experts, and brand effectiveness.

Leadership: Truth Commanded in Advertising Messages

It is not sufficient, at critical years, for the marketer to employ creative messages only for satisfying the target audience that the product can satisfy their needs and wants. The competition-focused message should be taken into consideration as the primary strategy. Based on the premise that modern marketing has become a life-or-death

conflict, Ray and Thast (1944) review the principles of defensive thinking and provide material suitable for corporate executives. They declare that "the true nature of marketing today is not serving the customer, it is surviving, outlasting, outgrowing your competitors. In short, marketing is war where the enemy is the competition and the customer is the ground to be won" (Ray & Thast, 1944, p. 4). Thus, a brand must aspire to become one in the product category, the leader. Brand equity also, leadership traits are expected to be one of the critical factors advertisers should demonstrate in advertising messages.

What is Leadership?

In his survey of leadership-theory and research, Ralph M. Stogdill (as cited in Bass, 1980, p. 7) points out that "there are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept." Leadership has been defined in several concepts such as leadership as a focus-group process, as a personality and its effects, as a power relation, etc.

Yet, there is common agreement that leadership can be characterized as the quality of a leader or as the quality to lead. Thus, the culture of a leader are three broad categories: a set of personality traits and behavior characteristics. The first approach is the attempt to classify the personal-characteristics of leaders. The latter is the attempt to isolate the behavior characteristics of effective leaders. In the other words, rather than trying to figure out what effective leaders are, research in this area tries to determine what effective leaders do.

When leadership concept is applied to marketing philosophy, a leader is referred to as a brand rather than a person. Similar to a person, leadership in the terms of a market leader can be viewed from two distinct perspectives: what the brand is, and what the brand does. What the brand is, or what the brand is perceived to be, seems to be rarely covered. The other perspective, what the brand does, is often referred to as how well a brand leads its market sector in terms of sales. In this sense, market share effectively measures leadership.

Leadership is also one of several critical factors of brand value. Russell and Lane (1999) state that perceived leadership, which refers to the consumer's perception of leadership of the brand, is one of the brand equity indicators. Aaker (1996), in the same way, suggests that leadership is a supplement to the perceived quality construct in measuring brand equity. He notes that leadership has three dimensions. It refers to just the "number one" syndrome. The logic is that if enough customers are buying into the brand concept to make it the rules/leader, it must have merit. Also, leadership taps dimensions of customer acceptance, reflecting the fact that people want to be on the leading edge and are uneasy about going against the flow. Lastly, it can also tap into innovation within a product class, that is, whether a brand is moving ahead technologically.

Leadership is one of the seven dimensions of brand strength in the Interbrand System. In this system, leadership is measured by the relative size of the sales base. In the Interbrand weighting scheme, leadership receives the most weight (25 points out of 100). The other six factors are stability, market, brand, support, internationality and legal protection.

Ries and Trout (1986) describe a brand leader as is the brand is perceived in the mind of consumers. They suggest that a company has to build a leadership position in the consumer's mind. The essential ingredient in securing the leadership position is getting into the mind first. The brand would be respected for its services. Then, the essential ingredient in keeping that position is reinforcing the original concept. Consequently, everything else would be an imitation of "the real thing." Ries and Trout (1986) point out that "the real thing," like a first love, will always occupy a special place in the consumer's mind.

As communications can communicate "what the brand is," leadership status can be expected to be a unique tool advertisers can use to make the target audience perceive leadership of the brands in particular product categories. If marketers understood what kind of leadership status exist in the brand leaders in particular product categories, the ability to identify how brands should be communicated in advertising messages would be expected. As a result, the brand managers in the positioning stage would be strengthened.

Market Positioning Theory

Although the inception of marketing positioning can be traced back to the 1950's, renowned advertising professionals Al Ries and Jack Trout are generally credited with operationalizing this body of thought on a wide scale basis in the 1970s (Ries, 1983). They propose a new era in the communications and marketing behaviors which would place emphasis not only on product features and corporate image, but most importantly, on establishing a "position" in the mind of prospective customers. Ries and Trout also

this positioning is not what you do to the product, but what you do to the consumer's mind, through various communications.

Positioning is stated as a way to ensure communications will be heard as a reader-motivated society-consumed in advertising needs. Using a framework of psychological understanding, Kotler and Trout from their theory on the human tendency to make nearly everything concerned leaders, as well as the decision process of coping with complexity by reducing information to its simplest elements. "Thinking outside about it, the mind is the battle ground" (Kotler & Trout, 1979a, p. 34). Asker et al. (1994) comment on the same way:

A brand's positioning is a relative concept, as that it refers to a comparative assessment by the consumer of how this brand is similar to or different from the other brands that compete with it. Think of every consumer as having a mental map of the product category. The location of your brand on that map, relative to that of your competitors, is your position, and the locations of all the brands on that map are determined by the associations that the consumer makes with each brand. (p. 193)

Thus, according to market positioning theory, the marketing leader is usually the one who moves the ladder into the mind with his or her brand reflected in the cost and only rung (Kotler & Trout, 1984). They also add that it is not enough to believe that the competitor, marketers must introduce their product before someone else has chance to establish leadership.

Who Is Brand Leadership Important?

Leadership is very crucial in its psychological effects with respect to consumer behavior, and its management for marketers, either on a short term or long term basis.

In the brand introduction, the advantages of the marketing leader are brand familiarity and first impressions that will project a favorable image in the subsequent stages. Often, the pioneer's name is the first one that comes to people's minds whenever they think of that type of product for years afterward (Russett & Lane, 1951). Furthermore, consumers are much more comfortable with a packing order that everybody knows about and accepts (Rus & Trout, 1956).

Not only do they possess the advantage in terms of psychological effects, Rus and Trout (1956) also allege sales evidence. They point out that "[e]vidently shows that the first brand wins the battle, on the average, gets twice the long-term market share of the No. 2 brand and twice again as much as No. 3 brand. And the relationships are not easily changed" (Rus & Trout, 1956, p.43). Thus, in the introductory stage, brand leaders have an advantage in establishing stability for the subsequent stages. Kotler (1960) states that many brands generally continue to gain strength following their inception, but also points out that some brands follow a more cyclical pattern of increased strength followed by decay.

Market leader brands, in the competitive stage, also cover competitive claims and retain their leadership. "When a follower copies a leader, it is not covering it all. It is better described as a 'see his' response. Leaders can do anything they want (Rus & Trout, 1956). As in the introduction period, a leading brand is a more stable and valuable property than a brand lower down the order.

Over a period of time, a long established leading brand would have generated equity, which leads to loyalty in that brand. Furthermore, the brand leadership can be associated to the image of the firm. Rus and Trout (1956) claim that the power of the

organization inferred from the power of the product, the position that the product occupies in the consumer's mind.

Leadership Traits

Since leadership is considered a critical construct for a strong brand, it might be useful to study how advertisers can demonstrate it as advertising managers. A review of the literature reveals that brand leadership can briefly comprise two concepts, that is, *what the brand is and what the brand does*. In addition, it indicates that brands, like people, can have their personality. It might be possible that leading brands in particular product categories have leadership traits. Thus, advertisers may communicate those traits to advertising managers to let target audience perceive the leadership of brands.

A trait is defined as "any distinguishable, relatively enduring way in which one individual differs from others" (Gustaf, 1973, p. 22). Psychologists who have studied personality discrepancies typically subscribe to a "trait" approach in studying and measuring human personality and believe that every person can be classified on the basis to which he or she possesses certain traits (Jahromi et al., 1994).

While there is a long history of studies of leader traits, studies of the traits of market leader brands have rarely been investigated. It might be useful to apply the findings of individual leadership trait studies to brand marketing leaders under the supposition that there are certain consistent leadership traits communicated in successful brands' advertising in a certain product category.

Several lines of evidence show that certain personality dimensions are consistently related to retail leadership effectiveness. The survey completed by Bengt

in 1970 (as noted in Bass, 1980) was based on Hill's studies of the characteristics of leaders reported Hill through 1970.

In the surveys, Bagozzi classifies leadership traits into six categories: physical characteristics, social/background, intelligence and ability, personality, task-related characteristics, and social characteristics. Appendix C presents the findings of the studies of leadership traits. It is interesting to investigate the leadership traits which leading brands demonstrated by employing these traits as a guideline.

The Factors Affecting Consumer Strategies in Building Strong Brands

After the literature concerning consumer strategies and the theoretical framework explaining how this work will proceed, this study can summarize the factors affecting consumer strategies in building a strong brand. Regardless of environmental factors such as competitors, regulation or culture, the factors influencing strategic brand creation determination of image in the BCIH, brand awareness, brand attitude, involvement, and leadership traits.

The BCIH stage is the primary factor in determining brand image/position. In the introductory stage, marketers should start with a quality product and then build a brand image that creates a positive consumer evaluation (Parashar, 1987).

Brand awareness is also an important factor in building strong brands because a brand communication task in which advertising needs to create awareness. Awareness can be particularly needed when the goal is to stimulate a first purchase perhaps of a new product. The Recenter-Perry Grid puts brand awareness as a necessary precursor to brand attitude. For a new product, brand awareness is the initial communication

objectives of advertising. There is evidence (Research Systems Corporation, 1983) that recall, when factored together with media weight, is a good predictor of the awareness share will be generated in the market place over time for a new brand.

New advertising works also depends on low or high involvement situations because involvement affects the psychological processes of a consumer. As illustrated in the ELAM, people are most likely to process centrally when both attention and ability are high when either is low peripheral processing is most likely. In low involvement situations, it may be more appropriate to create ads which raise attention and change brand attitudes through emotional liking and credibility while in high involvement situations, it may be better for ads to provide strong "reason why" the brand is superior.

The fourth factor is brand attitude. The PCB Grid and the Research-Percy Grid discriminate attitudes in terms of whether they are based on affect or cognition. The PCB Grid discriminates between affect and cognition based attitudes using the "think-feel" dimension. The Research-Percy Grid discriminates between cognitive and affective attitudes by discriminating between "the purchase motives which cause the attitude to form initially" (Research et al., 1983). Both planning grids recommend matching the advertising appeal to the attitude basis. For product-based or which attitudes are based primarily on affect, advertisers would be best served by using effective appeals. Conversely, when attitudes are based primarily on attitudes, cognitive foundations, advertisers should use informative appeals.

To be successful in the introductory stage, a brand must try to be a leader in a product category. Advertisers should make the target audience perceive leadership in the

brand. The leadership team was expected to be the important variables in advertising management.

Hypotheses

The purpose of this study is to examine how the advertising effectiveness contributes to success in the introduction stage. The study operated under the assumption that if every brand followed the recommendations of the creative strategies found in a review of the literature, such as advertising planning, goals and motivational variables related to advertising effectiveness, then there must be other certain variables which differentiate brand managers.

For comparative purposes, the roll-out year commercials of ten beer brands were analyzed against the brands' first year of sales to investigate the factors in which advertising content differentiated brand managers. Determining which main message and creative responses differentiate brand managers in the introduction stage will help marketers and creative people to position new brands with potentially successful factors.

It was predicted that creative strategies used by successful brands will be different from those used by less successful brands. The following hypotheses have been developed:

- (H1) There will be a relationship between main message typology and success of brands.
- (H2) There will be certain emotional variables which differentiate advertising managers of successful brands from those of less successful brands.

10. There will be certain leadership traits which differentiate advertising managers of successful brands from those of less successful brands

CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY

Research Design

This study was conducted using the content analysis method in order to test the proposed hypotheses. This method was chosen because it allows researchers to uncover and categorize the underlying themes, values and perspectives which are contained in the objects of analysis (Kang, Kwon, Luker, & Soenen, 1991). It also helps researchers better understand and investigate advertising messages systematically and objectively. Researchers can apply these findings to the discussion of the product positioning and on to the advertising strategies of respective brands.

Commercials of roll-out brands in a particular product category were selected. Individual commercials of each brand were content analyzed by coders. Thus, data analysis was executed to investigate the differences in creative strategies of individual brands. The analysis would investigate the three major dimensions of the use of creative strategies: message strategies, execution devices, and leadership cues.

After the individual brands were descriptively analyzed, they would be grouped into two sets: successful brands and less-successful brands. The results of the content analysis of the commercials of the two sets of brands could help researchers explore which variables in tele-view commercials differentiate brand messages and contribute to success of brands.

Instrumentation

The questionnaire designed for this study was divided into three sections: strategic strategies, emotional elements and leadership traits. In the first section, Luker's (1980)-original instruments of mass strategic typology were used because the literature review revealed that the typology not only appears to be mutually exclusive and exhaustive but also seems to generate reliable classification results. A few minor structural changes were added.

The second section involves emotional variables. The emotional variables were obtained from the prediction of comprehension and persuasion of new product commercials analyzed in the study of Simon and Fourn (1985). Similar to the mass strategic typology, the review of literature indicates that the study is comprehensive and uses a large set of samples. It is more reliable and valuable to use variables from the results of Simon and Fourn's study as guidance for this research. Variables related to recall strength were not included in this study because previous research shows that there is neither correlation between recall and measure of persuasion nor a positive correlation between recall and sales (Aaker et al., 1994). In contrast, there is substantial evidence linking persuasion measures with sales (Aaker et al., 1994). Variables related to only comprehension and persuasion were employed. Appendix B presents the emotional variables associated with comprehension and persuasion as predicted for new products in Simon and Fourn's study.

The last section involves leadership traits. The survey completed by Stogdill in 1970 (as cited in Bass, 1990) was used as a guideline to test leadership traits conceptualized as affecting. The leadership traits in Stogdill's survey were based on

103 studies of the characteristics of leaders reported from 1948 through 1970.

Accordingly, it represented substantially consistent results. For the purposes of this study, women from our appropriate for measuring broad leadership were excluded. Those who were age, appearance or grooming, height, weight, education, social status, nationality, and administrative ability.

Code Book and Quantitative

The main message section defines the two main message categories, informational and transformational, followed by the definitions and rules for coding the subcategories of each message category.

There were twelve categories of variables with primary data items in the measured variable section. Definitions of each item were derived from the study of Barnard and Parry (1980).

In the last section there were no definitions of leadership items given to coders. The primary message is that more had defined broad leadership items below. Coders were encouraged to use their own mental images for each trait.

Product Category and Visual Selection

Comments of six boards of four were collected from the previous research conducted by Berman (1984). Items were selected as product category because they are considered to be low involvement products in which image advertising has been shown to be effective work.

Beats were selected based on availability of sales information and open whether a suitable match could be found for comparison. Matches were determined by selecting a direct competitor within the specialized beer category. By matching brands it was hoped that more differences between premium/open and the success of a brand would be revealed.

The six paired brands included in this study were Bud Ice and Icehouse, O'Doul's and Sharp's, and Michelob-Golden Draft and Miller Genuine Draft. Each pairing belongs to a different subcategory of the product category. Bud Ice and Icehouse are considered premium priced "ice" beers. O'Doul's and Sharp's are considered premium priced non-alcoholic beers. Michelob-Golden Draft and Miller Genuine Draft are considered "draft" beers from the premium priced category.

Collection/Training

Three graduate students served as judges for the ads. The researcher was not included. According to Davis (1997), individuals involved in research design and data analysis should not make the advertising reviews. "Probably the worst practice in the content analysis is when the investigator develops/develops coding instructions and applies them all by himself or with the help of a few close colleagues and thus prevent independent reliability checks" (Koppelman, 1980, p. 14). Consideration was also given to matching codes to the typical target audience.

Training was necessary to ensure that the coders relied upon the same aspects of their experience in their coding decisions. In a training session, the coders were

intended to further analyse commercial in each section of the questionnaire: main strategy typeology, emotional variable, and leadership traits.

In this main strategy section, the coders were instructed to first decide which of the general categories a commercial fit into and then decide the specific strategy type identified within the subcategories of the chosen general category. Once a commercial was classified into a general category, the number of possible subcategories was greatly reduced.

In the emotional variable section, coders were asked to rate how well each commercial performed within each variable on a scale of 1 to 9 where 1 was "not at all" and 9 was considered as "excellent" performance. The variable pertinent to timing and content factors at this section were analysed by the researcher.

In the last section, leadership traits, 14 human leadership traits were applied to investigate whether leadership traits existed in commercials. Coders were asked to rate how well a given brand demonstrated each trait in the commercial. As in the emotional variable section, a scale of 1 to 9 was employed. In the leadership-trait section, coders were informed that there are no "right" or "wrong" answers, only different personality types.

The coders were allowed to complete the questionnaire about and on their own. Instructions were given for skipping the commercials as many times as necessary so the coders could comfortably answer all questions. Coders were encouraged to complete all the questions for each brand before moving on to the next.

Prototyping was conducted before the coding process. One commercial used in prototyping was also in the beer category, but was not the one of the brands used in the

study. The primary purpose of pretesting was to help the researcher improve category system structure, category definitions, and coding instructions and procedures. The secondary purpose was to familiarize coders with the coding procedure.

Inter-coder Reliability

The inter-coder reliability check was calculated by using the formula of Fleiss (1981) and Leach (1983). Their formula, sensitive to reliability differences which arise as the number of classification dimensions increases, calculates k (inter-coder reliability) as

$$k = \frac{J(P_0 - 1/N)}{(J-1)(P - 1/N)^2}$$

where

J is the number of coded items on which the coders agree,
 P is the number of codings,
 N is the number of coding dimensions

The inter-coder reliability was computed for each pair of coders for each section. In the main message section, the reliability was checked for both main message category and message subcategory for overall sets. In exposure variable and leadership trait sections, a reliability check was computed for each set.

Using the above formula, the inter-coder reliabilities in each section are shown in the following tables.

Table 3-1 presents the inter-coder reliability of message typology in overall communications. The results from Table 3-2 reveal that there is no difference among the results derived from three pairs of coders. Table 3-3 presents the inter-coder reliability of leadership by pairs of coders and brands.

Table 3-1

Interorder Reliability by Pairs of Codes and Message Typology

Message Typology	Order 1 and Order 2	Order 2 and Order 3	Order 1 and Order 3
Main Category	0.00	0.02	0.28
Subcategory	0.00	0.58	0.38

As shown in Table 3-1, the main category and subcategory produced the least interorder reliability for the pair of order 1 and 2, followed in order by the pair of order 1 and order 3, and the pair of order 2 and order 3.

Table 3-2 shows the interorder reliability of transactional elements by pairs of orders and brands.

Table 3-2

Interorder Reliability of The Transactional Variables

Ads	Order 1 and Order 2	Order 2 and Order 3	Order 1 and Order 3
Real Ads	0.72	0.73	0.68
Miller Genuine Draft	0.29	0.66	0.62
Wary's	0.54	0.60	0.62
Ice House	0.58	0.67	0.67
Michelob-Golden Draft	0.64	0.63	0.65
Q'Draft's	0.51	0.78	0.79

Table 3-2 reveals that the interorder reliability check measuring from the pair of order 1 and order 3 provides the strongest reliability followed in order by the pair of order 1 and order 2, and the pair of order 2 and order 3.

Table 3-1

Inter-rater Reliability of Leadership Items

Item	Coder 1 and Coder 2	Coder 2 and Coder 3	Coder 1 and Coder 3
	Coeff. κ	Coeff. κ	Coeff. κ
Boyd's	0.12	0.00	0.74
Miller-Gossens' Draft	0.00	0.00	0.20
May's	0.14	0.14	0.20
Jim Brown	0.00	0.00	0.40
Macintosh-Golden Draft	0.00	0.00	0.20
Q-Draft's	0.00	0.00	0.00

The reliability checks reveal that, overall, the results from the pair of coder 1 and coder 3 show the sufficient reliability more than the pair of coder 1 and coder 2, or the pair of coder 2 and coder 3. The research would exclude data coded by coder 2. The data coded by only coder 1 and coder 3 would be analyzed.

CHAPTER 4 FINDINGS

Roll-out Year Sales Information and The Success of Brands

The information of beer brands and their roll-out year sales derived from the research of Barakat (1996) were used in this study. For comparative purposes, the six beer brands were split into successful brands and less-successful brands according to their sales and market share in their roll-out year.

Roll-out Year: Millions of Barrels Produced and Percent of Market

Brands were measured by sales information. The measurements used were the millions of barrels and the percent market share produced by each brand during their roll-out year. Table 4-1 shows the millions of barrels produced for individual brands and the millions of barrels produced by the industry during each roll-out year. The percent of market share was calculated by dividing the millions of barrels produced by the industry over the millions of barrels produced by the individual brands. The market share information is shown in the Table 4-2.

The success ranking returned consisted for both millions of barrels produced and market share. Bud had the most favorable roll-out year followed in order by Miller Genuine Draft, Sharp's, O'Doul's, Michelob Ubbles Draft, and Icehouse. It

should be noted that during the roll-out year, Mobiloh's Golden Draft did not have national distribution.

Table 4-1

Brand Roll-out Years and Millions of Barrels Produced

Beer Brand	Roll-out Year	Millions of Barrels	Total Millions of Barrels for Reference to Roll-out Year
Bud Ice	1994	3.3	198.3
Anchor	1995	0.1	197.3
Mobiloh's Golden Draft	1991	0.3	196.3
Miller Genuine Draft	1994	1.0	190.0
O'Doul's	1990	0.3	189.3
Sharp's	1990	0.4	189.3

(Johnson, 1998)

Table 4-2

Roll-out Year Percentage of Market Share

Beer Brand	Roll-out Year	Total Market Share
Bud Ice	1994	1.50
Anchor	1995	0.05
Mobiloh's Golden Draft	1991	0.10
Miller Genuine Draft	1994	0.05
O'Doul's	1990	0.13
Sharp's	1990	0.20

(Johnson, 1998)

Successful Versus Less-Successful Brands

After brands were ranked in order of success, the median market share was calculated to divide them into two groups consisting of "Successful" and "Less-Successful." The median percentage of market share for the top beers was 8.117%.¹

Table 4-1 shows both the "successful" brands and their percentage of market share. The "less-successful" brands and their percentage of market share are presented in Table 4-2.

It is important to note that each competitive pairing of beers by category was split between the two categories of success. From the "top" beer category, Bud for Bud is higher percentage of market share than Schlitz during its respective roll-out year. In the previous "Draft" category, Miller-Cassius Draft's roll-out year was more successful than the roll-out year for Michelob Golden Draft. In the Non-Alcoholic category, Sharp's roll-out year was more favorable than O'Doul's.

Table 4 -1

Successful Brands and Percentage of Market Share

Successful Beer Brands	% of Market Share
Bud for	113
Miller-Cassius Draft	30
Sharp's	29

(Plummer, 1994)

Table 4-4

Less-Successful Brands and Percentage of Market Share

Less-Successful Brands	% Market Share
Kodak	23
Mitsubishi Golden Draft	18
O'Dell's	15

(Plamont, 1998)

After classifying the brands' success according to measures of sales and market share, the contents of the individual commercials of successful brands and less-successful brands were statistically analyzed to investigate how they differed in the use of three creative strategies: message strategies, execution, and leadership characteristics.

Message Strategies and The Success of Brands

What Message Strategies

Table 4-5 presents the main message categories of the commercials of successful brands coded by individual coders.

As shown in Table 4-5, coder 1 and coder 2 consistently agreed that Miller Genuine Draft and Sharp's used informational strategy and transformational strategy respectively. There was disagreement on Bud Ice's strategy. There was no overall agreement on the main message category of successful brands' commercials.

Table 4-6 presents the message subcategories of the successful brands' commercials as coded by the coders.

Table 4-3

Successful Brands by Main Message Categories and Brands

Successful Brands	Main Categories		Total
	Content 1	Content2	
Dial Ice	Informational	Transformational	Mix
Miller-Gossett Dress	Informational	Informational	Informational
Sharp's	Transformational	Transformational	Transformational
Total			Mix

Table 4-4

Successful Brands by Message Subcategories and Brands

Successful Brands	Subcategories		Total
	Content1	Content2	
Dial Ice	Hyperbole	Brand Image	Mix
Miller-Gossett Dress	USP	USP	USP
Sharp's	User Concern	User Image	Mix
Total			Mix

As illustrated in Table 4-3, Miller-Gossett Dress was unanimously coded "Unique Selling Proposition." However, coders disagreed on the strategies of Dial Ice and Sharp's. There was no overall agreement on the message subcategory of the successful brands' advertisements.

Table 4-7 presents the main message categories of the less-successful brands' advertisements coded by coders.

Table 4-1

Low-Successful Brands by Main Message Categories and Brands

Low-Successful Brands	Main Category		Total
	Informational	Transformational	
Ice Cream	Informational	Transformational	Info
Michelob Ultra Beer	Transformational	Transformational	Transformational
O'Doul's	Informational	Informational	Informational
Total			Info

Table 4-1 indicates that Michelob-Ultra Beer and O'Doul's were unanimously rated as transformational strategy and informational strategy respectively. There was overall disagreement as to how Ice Cream was categorized. There was no agreement as main message category of the low-successful brands' competitors.

After the descriptive main strategies of individual brands were listed, this study investigated whether main message strategies were statistically correlated to the success of the brands. Table 4-2 presents the distribution of the main message strategies of the successful brands and low successful brands as rated by the coders.

Table 4-2 indicates that the frequency of message categories, Informational and Transformational advertising used by successful brands equaled those used by the low-successful brands. A chi-square test at the 0.05 significance level was used to test the correlation between the main message category and the success of the brands. The results reveal that the computed chi-square equals 0.0, while the critical chi-square equals 3.84.

Table 4-8

The Distribution of Chain Message Categories by Successful and Less-Successful Brands

Brands	Informational	Transformational	Total
Successful Brands	3	3	6
Less-Successful Brands	3	3	6
Total	6	6	12

Since the computed value, 8.6, is smaller than the critical chi square, the difference between the observed and expected results is not large enough to reject the hypothesis of independence at 0.05 significance level. Thus, there is no statistical relationship between the mass message category and the success of brands.

Message Subcategory Strategies

Table 4-9 presents the message subcategories of successful brands' commercials as coded by the coders.

As revealed in Table 4-9, Miller Genuine Draft was unanimously coded "Unique Selling Proposition." Coders disagreed on the strategies of Bud Ice and Sharp's. There was no overall agreement on the message subcategory of the successful brands' commercials.

Table 4-10 presents the message subcategories of the less-successful brands' commercials as coded by the coders.

Table 4-8

Successful Brands by Message Subcategories and Brands

Successful Brands	Subcategories		Total
	Content	Context	
Red Bull	Hyperbole	Brand Image	Min
Michelin Guides Draft	User Image	User Image	User Image
Sharp's	User Decision	User Image	Min
Total			Min

Table 4-9

Less-Successful Brands by Message Subcategories and Brands

Less-Successful Brands	Subcategories		Total
	Content	Context	
Ice House	Preemptive	Brand Image	Min
Michelin Guides Draft	User Image	User Image	User Image
Q Dool's	Preemptive	Generic Info	Min
Total			Min

Michelin Guides Draft was consistently noted "User Image" strategy. Content designed to how/where and Q Dool's used creative strategies. There was an overall agreement on the message subcategory of the less-successful brands' commercials.

After the message subcategories of the individual brands were listed, the distribution of the message subcategories of the commercials used by successful brands

and less-successful brands were analyzed and the results are shown in Table 4-11. It is noted that "Clear Image" and "Brand Image" strategies were collapsed into "Image" strategy.

Table 4-11

The Distribution of Message Subcategory by Successful Brands and Less-Successful Brands

Brands	USP	Image	Others	Total
Successful Brands	1	3	3	7
Less-Successful Brands	0	3	3	6
Total	1	6	6	13

The results imply there was no difference caused by the use of the main message strategies between the successful brands and the less-successful brands. Table 4-11 reveals that the unique selling proposition strategy existed in successful brands more than in the less-successful brands. The commercials of the less-successful brands used the image strategy more than those of the successful brands.

Because the unique selling point strategy seems to be opposite of the image strategy, studying the relationship of using message subcategory and the success of the brands may reveal interesting results. The chi-square test was employed to investigate the relationship between the message subcategory and the success of the brands. The results indicate that the computed chi-square equals 3.83, while the critical chi-square equals 3.84.

Since the computed value, 3.00, is smaller than the critical chi-square, the difference between the observed and expected results is not large enough to reject the hypothesis of independence at 0.01 significance level. Thus, there is no statistical relationship between average salary category and success of brands.

The Educational Variables and The Success of Brands

In order to investigate how individual brands demonstrated educational variables in their commercial strategies, the mean of each element was calculated and shown as

Table 4-12.

Table 4-12.

The Effect of the Educational Variables by Brands

Educational Variables	Successful Brands			Less-Successful Brands		
	Red Sea	Willy	Star's	Kobayashi	Minke	O'Don
1. Price	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
2. Value	0.0	3.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
3. Quality	0.0	0.0	3.0	3.0	1.0	7.0
4. Ecofriendly	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
5. Dependability	0.0	0.0	1.0	0.0	0.0	1.0
6. Sensory information	2.0	3.0	4.0	3.0	1.0	7.0
7. Aesthetics: colors	0.0	1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.0
8. Components	0.0	4.0	1.0	4.0	1.0	0.0
9. Availability	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
10. Packaging	1.0	0.0	0.0	1.0	1.0	3.0
11. Guarantee	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
12. Safety	0.0	0.0	4.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
13. Personal health	0.0	0.0	3.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
14. Independent research results	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
15. Company sponsor research results	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

Table 18-11—continued

Subserved Variables	Successful Brands			Less-Successful Brands		
	Superior	Stiller	Strong's	Johnson	Miles	O'Don
14 Knowledge results from unidentified source	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
15 New uses	0.0	0.0	3.0	0.0	1.0	0.0
16 Company image	1.5	1.0	0.5	4.5	2.0	2.0
19 Results of usage	0.5	0.5	0.0	0.5	1.5	0.0
20 Use a calculator	0.0	3.0	3.0	1.0	0.5	3.0
21 Superiority claim	0.0	7.5	0.5	1.0	0.0	0.5
22 Convenience to use	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.0
23 Special offer or event	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.0	0.0	0.0
24 New product feature	3.0	3.0	0.0	1.0	0.0	3.0
25 Use occasion	0.0	0.0	7.5	0.0	0.0	0.0
26 Image of users	0.0	4.0	7.5	0.0	0.5	0.0
27 Product is desirable						
Invited	3.0	0.0	0.5	0.0	0.5	4.5
28 Company manufacturing is identified	0.0	0.0	2.5	3.0	4.0	0.0
29 Brand names reinforce product benefits	0.5	0.0	4.5	0.5	0.0	0.0
30 Graphic display	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
31 Memorable slogans, slogans, or messages	3.0	3.5	4.5	0.5	4.0	2.5
32 Attributes of ingredients are major appeal	4.5	0.5	0.0	3.0	0.0	0.0
33 Sexual appeal	0.0	0.0	3.0	0.0	0.5	0.0
34 Comfort appeal	0.0	0.0	2.0	3.5	0.0	1.0
35 Safety appeal	0.0	0.0	4.5	0.0	0.0	1.0
36 Empowerment appeal	1.0	3.5	0.0	3.0	0.5	2.5
37 Welfare appeal	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
38 Social approval	0.0	3.0	3.0	0.0	0.5	0.0
39 Self-esteem or self-image	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.5	0.0
40 Achievement	3.0	4.0	4.5	0.0	3.0	1.0
41 Statusness	0.0	3.0	3.5	0.0	0.5	3.0
42 Customizable	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.0	0.0	0.0
43 Hard sell	0.0	3.5	2.5	3.5	1.5	0.5
44 Warm and caring	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.0	0.0	0.0
45 Modern	3.5	0.5	3.0	3.0	0.5	1.5
46 Wholesome/freshness	0.0	3.0	0.0	3.5	0.0	0.5
47 Technological	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

Table 4-3—continued

Functional Variables	Successful Brands			Less-Successful Brands		
	Red Ice	Miller	Sharp's	Ice House	Miller	O'Day
4 Conservative	80	33	33	33	80	80
40 Old-fashioned	80	40	80	10	80	00
50 Happiest-looking	80	20	70	20	70	00
51 Crooked/teeth	25	10	00	30	80	10
53 Ambitious	20	15	80	20	80	10
53 Unhappy/unsafe/irritated	00	80	80	00	80	00
60 Believed/comfortable	10	25	20	10	20	20
61 Clean-cut	00	80	10	00	80	00
64 Humorous	00	10	80	45	25	00
67 Suggestive	00	10	00	80	80	00
68 Rough-nugged	00	40	00	15	80	00
69 Direct comparison with other product	00	80	00	80	80	00
69 Polite	00	80	00	80	10	00
69 Firm and upright	00	80	20	20	20	20
69 Continuity of name	20	20	80	10	75	20
69 Vigorous	00	80	10	80	65	00
69 Shows a major advance	00	80	70	80	80	25
69 Means present	00	80	80	80	85	75
69 Brand-differentiating strategy	10	20	30	40	05	25

Table 4-4

Timing and Counting Variables by Brands

Functional Variables	Successful Brands			Less-successful brands		
	Red Ice	Miller	Sharp's	Ice House	Miller	O'Day
1 Time of package	4	5	5	15	5	5
2 Time of brand name	5	5	5	20	5	10
3 Time of initial product	3	7	12	7	18	14
4 Length of commercial	15	28	28	20	20	28
5 Time of brand name	2	5	2	5	5	5

Table 4-13 also shows the testing and counting items used in each of the successful brands' and the less-successful brands' commercials.

The mean of each variable indicates that individual brands demonstrated differences in their commercials differently. The next step was to find how differently the successful brands commercialized these emotional elements as compared to the less-successful brands.

After the mean scores of the emotional variables of each commercial were computed, the commercials were grouped into two independent groups: successful brands and less-successful brands. An independent-sample *t* test was used to see if successful brands' commercials and less-successful brands' resulted in the same mean rating levels. A 95% of confidence interval was used to determine the confidence level. In this study, *P* value of 0.01 or below was considered statistical significance.

Table 4-14 lists the emotional variables present in either the successful brands or the less-successful brands' commercials.

As shown in Table 4-14, information about price, ecoconscience, availability, guarantee, independent research result, company sponsor research result, research results from an unidentified source, willing, and money-limited appeal, product display, and direct comparison with other products did not exist in any of the commercials.

Table 4-15 presents the mean scores of the emotional variables that had no statistical significance ($P > 0.05$) in the successful brands' and the less-successful brands' commercials. The results are ranked by their *P* values.

Table 4-14

The Emotional Variables Coded as "Too Present" in Ads of the Ads

Emotional Variables	Mean		P value
	Successful Ads	Less-Successful Ads	
1. Price	0	0	0
2. Economy/ Savings	0	0	0
3. Availability	0	0	0
4. Guarantee	0	0	0
5. Independent Research results	0	0	0
6. Company sponsor research results	0	0	0
7. Research results from unidentified source	0	0	0
8. Graphics Display	0	0	0
9. Welfare Appeal	0	0	0
10. Direct Comparison with other products	0	0	0
11. Unsubstantiated	0	0	0

Table 4-15

The Emotional Variables that are Not Statistically Significant ($P > 0.05$)

Emotional Variables	Mean		P value
	Successful Brands	Less-Successful Brands	
1. Company manufacturing product is identified	0.00	0.007	0.333
2. Dependability/ reliability/durability	0.000	0.000	0.007
3. Results of using	0.333	0.000	0.333
4. Music present	0.000	0.333	0.007
5. Hard sell	0.007	0.000	0.333
6. Employment appeal	0.000	0.333	0.000
7. Modern/Contemporary	0.007	0.333	0.333
8. Self-reliance	0.000	0.003	0.007
9. Use occasion	0.007	0.007	0.000
10. Conservative/Traditional	0.007	0.003	0.003
11. Time product is on scene	0.333	0.000	0.000
12. Continuity of action	0.333	0.003	0.007

Table 14b—continued.

Exogenous Variables	Mean		Mean Difference	P value
	Successful Brands	Less-Successful		
13 Memorable rhythms, slogans, or slogans	3.447	4.580	-0.313	0.034
14 Sophistication	1.147	1.033	0.147	0.446
15 Happy/like living	3.000	3.333	-0.333	0.044
16 Cool/ed look	1.667	3.667	-0.000	0.036
17 Product is stylish/trendy	4.500	1.667	1.433	0.007
18 Refreshing/invigorating	3.333	1.333	-1.000	0.199
19 Good differentiating message	4.667	2.333	1.333	0.013
20 Excitement, arousal, variety	3.333	2.333	0.300	0.473
21 Pleasant surprise	4.300	2.333	2.147	0.046
22 More a major element	3.300	3.580	0.000	0.341
23 Price package is an asset	4.333	10.333	-4.000	0.333
24 Social approval	1.667	2.1667	-0.500	0.323
25 User's satisfaction/likability	3.833	3.667	-0.133	0.316
26 Characteristic/image of user	3.833	2.833	1.000	0.295
27 Quality	3.147	4.667	1.500	0.266
28 Sensory information	3.833	4.880	-0.147	0.361
29 Wholesome/healthy	2.000	1.000	1.000	0.236
30 Time/brand name is an asset	4.000	13.333	-4.500	0.210
31 Components, contents, or ingredients	3.000	4.667	-3.667	0.131
32 Glamorous	0.500	0.367	0.133	0.148
33 Social approval	1.667	2.367	-0.500	0.140
34 Brand name matches product benefits	0.667	2.367	1.500	0.140
35 Humorous	0.500	2.333	-1.333	0.138
36 Aesthetic claim	0.333	1.333	-1.000	0.128
37 Special offer or event	0.333	1.367	-0.833	0.117
38 Company image or reputation	1.000	1.000	-2.000	0.114
39 Unique	1.667	2.333	-0.667	0.106
40 Attributes of ingredients are major appeal	1.667	3.367	1.500	0.106
41 Polarity/contrasted claim	0.833	0.333	0.500	0.105
42 Achievement	2.833	1.000	1.833	0.100
43 Rough/rugged	1.333	0.500	0.833	0.092
44 Old-fashioned/tradition	1.500	0.500	1.000	0.091
45 New user	1.000	0.333	0.667	0.081
46 Nutrition/health	0.833	0.367	0.467	0.078
47 Time/brand name is an asset or asset	3.000	0.333	-3.333	0.069
48 Custom appeal	0.667	3.367	2.500	0.060

The P values of the variables shown in Table 4-15 were relatively low and indeed statistical significance. This result indicates that they reflect significant differences in the constructs of the successful brands from those of the less-successful brands.

Table 4-16 presents the mean scores of the statistical variables that are significantly present ($P < 0.05$) in the successful brands, and the less-successful brands constructs. The variables are ranked by their mean difference.

Table 4-16

The Statistical Variables that Statistically Significant ($P < 0.05$)

Statistical Variables	Mean		Mean difference	P value
	Successful	Less-Successful		
1 Superiority claim	2.147	0.800	2.147	0.004
2 Technological/innovative	2.147	0.000	2.147	0.004
3 Superiority	2.000	0.000	2.000	0.004
4 Safety	1.800	0.000	1.800	0.000
5 New product or new/improved product features	2.047	1.300	1.147	0.014
6 Value	1.000	0.000	1.000	0.014
7 Safety appeal	1.200	0.333	1.000	0.007
8 Convenience source	0.100	0.000	0.100	0.000
9 Warm and caring	0.000	0.667	-0.667	0.014
10 Colorizable	0.000	0.667	-0.667	0.014
11 Packaging	0.100	1.833	-1.500	0.004

As shown in Table 4-16, the P value of these variables was relatively high, and statistically meaningful. The first eight variables were significantly demonstrated in the constructs of the successful brands. The last three variables existed significantly in the constructs of the less-successful brands. It is important to note that the variable

Length of commercial¹⁷ had a P value of 0.045. It was included because there were too few commercials to conclude that the length of commercial can affect the advertising strategy of the brands.

Leadership Traits and The Success of Brands

Similar to the investigation of the emotional variables, Table 4-17 shows the mean of leadership-traits perceived in each of the successful brands¹⁸ and the less-successful brands' commercials.

After the mean of leadership traits of each commercial was computed, the commercials were divided into two independent groups: successful brands and less-successful brands in order to investigate how differently each group communicates leadership traits in its commercials. An independent-sample t test was used to test whether the successful brands' commercials and the less-successful brands' resulted in the same mean rating levels of leadership traits.

Table 4-18 indicates the mean of leadership traits that was not significantly present ($P > 0.05$) in the successful brands' and the less-successful brands' commercials. The variables are ranked by their P values.

The P values of the variables shown in Table 4-18 were relatively low, and they were not statistically significant. They did not make the successful brands differentiable from the less-successful brands.

Table 4-19 shows the mean of leadership traits significantly present ($P < 0.05$) in the successful brands' and the less-successful brands' commercials. The variables are ranked by their mean differences.

Table 4.17

The Means of Leadership Traits by Gender

Leadership Traits	Successful Men's			Less Successful Men's		
	Test 1st	2nd	3rd	1st	2nd	3rd
1 Activity, energy	4.9	2.8	1.9	4.5	2.8	4.0
2 Intelligence	4.9	2.5	1.0	4.9	4.5	2.0
3 Politeness	4.0	1.8	4.0	4.0	4.0	2.0
4 Knowledge	4.0	2.8	2.0	4.0	4.0	4.0
5 Fluency of speech	1.0	1.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0
6 Adaptability	4.0	4.0	1.0	1.5	2.5	2.5
7 Adjustment	4.0	4.5	1.0	2.5	4.0	2.5
8 Aggressiveness	2.0	2.5	4.0	4.0	2.5	4.0
9 Assertive	4.0	2.5	4.0	4.0	2.0	4.0
10 Assertiveness	4.5	2.5	1.5	4.5	4.0	1.5
11 Emotional balance	1.5	2.0	4.0	1.5	2.0	4.5
12 Enthusiasm	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	2.0
13 Experience	1.0	4.0	1.0	2.0	4.0	4.5
14 Independence	4.0	4.0	1.0	4.0	4.0	1.5
15 Objectivity	4.0	2.0	4.0	2.0	4.0	4.0
16 Organizational sensitivity	2.5	4.0	1.5	4.0	4.0	2.0
17 Personal integrity	4.0	2.0	4.0	2.0	4.0	4.0
18 Resourcefulness	2.0	4.0	4.0	2.5	4.0	2.5
19 Self-confidence	4.0	2.0	2.0	4.0	4.0	2.0
20 Strength of conviction	2.5	2.0	1.0	2.5	4.0	2.5
21 Tolerance of stress	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	2.5	4.0
22 Drive to achieve	2.0	2.5	1.0	4.5	1.0	2.5
23 Drive for responsibility	4.0	4.0	1.5	2.0	4.0	4.0
24 Enthusiasm, initiative	2.5	4.5	4.0	4.5	1.5	2.5
25 Persistence against obstacles	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0
26 Responsibility for the pursuit of objectives	4.0	1.5	2.5	2.0	4.0	1.0
27 Task orientation	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	1.0	4.0
28 Ability to obtain cooperation	4.0	4.0	4.0	2.0	2.0	4.0
29 Assertiveness	2.0	1.0	1.0	4.0	4.5	2.5
30 Cooperativeness	4.0	4.5	4.0	1.0	4.5	4.0
31 Harshness	4.0	1.0	1.0	4.0	4.0	2.0
32 Popularity, prestige	1.0	2.5	1.0	2.0	1.0	1.5
33 Sociability						
interpersonal skills	4.0	1.5	2.5	2.5	4.5	4.0
34 Social participation	4.0	1.5	4.0	2.0	2.0	4.0

Table 4.18

Leadership Traits that are Not Statistically Significant ($P > 0.05$)

Leadership Traits	Means		Mean Difference	P-value
	Successful	Less-Successful		
1. Emotional balance, control	2.833	1.667	1.167	0.008
2. Adjustment, openness	1.833	2.000	-1.167	0.888
3. Interpersonal	2.833	2.000	0.833	0.088
4. Originality, creativity	2.667	2.667	0.000	0.128
5. Objectivity, tough-mindedness	1.167	1.000	0.167	0.808
6. Accommodate, downstate	2.833	1.000	1.833	0.009
7. Enthusiasm	2.667	2.667	0.000	0.778
8. Activity, energy	2.833	2.500	0.333	0.688
9. Adaptability	1.667	2.500	-0.833	0.417
10. Tolerance of stress	1.500	0.833	0.667	0.418
11. Social participation	2.167	4.000	-1.833	0.408
12. Resourcefulness	2.833	2.000	0.833	0.188
13. Self-confidence	2.833	4.167	-1.333	0.178
14. Sociability	2.333	2.167	0.167	0.588
15. Aggressiveness, assertiveness	1.833	1.500	0.333	0.598
16. Masculinity	1.333	0.667	0.667	0.287
17. Drive to achieve	4.167	2.167	2.000	0.068
18. Enterprising, initiative	2.000	2.167	-0.167	0.208
19. Altruism	2.167	1.000	1.167	0.138
20. Popularity, prestige	1.667	2.833	-1.167	0.248
21. Intelligence	1.833	0.667	1.167	0.241
22. Responsibility is the pursuit of objectives	1.667	1.000	0.667	0.238
23. Drive for responsibility	1.167	0.667	0.500	0.208
24. Judgment, discernment	1.833	0.667	1.167	0.208
25. Independence, nonconformity	4.833	4.167	0.667	0.388
26. Cooperativeness	2.333	0.667	1.667	0.178
27. Firmness against principles	1.333	0.333	1.000	0.498
28. Personal integrity, ethical conduct	2.333	0.333	2.000	0.091
29. Task orientation	1.333	0.333	1.000	0.088

Table 4-19

Leadership Traits that are Statistically Significant ($P < 0.05$)

Leadership Trait	Group		Mean Difference	P value
	Successful	Less-Successful		
1. Knowledge	1.447	0.000	1.447	0.000
2. Strength of conviction	2.388	2.097	1.300	0.015
3. Fluency of speech	0.647	0.000	0.647	0.000
4. Attractiveness	1.100	2.500	-1.400	0.044
5. Ability to solicit cooperation	0.147	2.400	-2.253	0.001

The F values of the leadership variables in Table 4-19 were relatively high, and they were statistically significant. The results indicate that there were certain leadership traits significantly demonstrated in the commercials of the successful brands. These traits are knowledge, strength of conviction, and fluency of speech. The commercials of the less-successful brands significantly demonstrated the last two leadership variables attractiveness and ability to solicit cooperation.

CHAPTER 3 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Limitations

Before discussing the findings, it is appropriate to mention that the results of the research must be considered within the limitations of the study. As in many studies, there were constraints within the research. Although the researcher had tried to take into consideration the factors which could effect the results, certain uncontrollable factors influencing the responses were discovered. These limitations are discussed in the following sections:

Bread Selection

The most important limitation came from bread selection. A serious attempt was made to match selected loaves with a major direct competitor of the same product category. This was an effort to eliminate as many differences as possible between the paired sets. A comparison between brands would be much stronger. Although brands were matched as closely as possible, there were some uncontrollable factors. A much more scientific, if feasible, study would involve replicating the project for all loaves in a particular category or for all loaf categories. If possible, to maximize, such a study would yield the best forecasting results.

Another limitation is the period of the DCM communicative stage. Advertisers usually execute advertising programs over a long time period. They usually plan to communicate their brand messages to the target audience in a series of campaigns. One roll-out commercial clip may not be able to represent all of the brand messages advertisers want to communicate in the introductory stage.

Another problem involves selecting subbrands. Not every brand in this study was a truly new name. Some brands are the subbrands of already-known brands (Bud for Miller Genuine Draft, Michelob Golden Draft) while the others are new brand names (Q-Bud is for Q-Bud, Soap-Q). The subbrands could have more awareness, familiarity, credibility, or brand equity than their mother brands' names. As reviewed in the literature, they might have an advantage over brands using new names because of degrees of risk and hedonic trial purchases.

Media Budget and Frequency

This study did not control the media budget and the frequency of brand exposure during these advertising programs. It is feasible that brands which spent more money would have gained a larger proportion of reach and frequency. They might have had more significant advertising effects on consumers. Cable-Wagner et al. (1995) suggest that brands with higher advertising budgets yield substantially higher levels of brand equity. In sum, the brand with higher equity generated significantly greater preference and purchase intentions.

The Measure of The Success of Brands

This research used criterion related validity to measure that advertising contributes to the success of brands in terms of sales and market share. Advertising is only one of many factors influencing sales, and it is difficult to isolate its contribution to these sales. The contributory role of advertising often occurs over time. Measuring of success according to sales and market share might not determine the success of advertising accurately. It is important to note that the implications derived from this study should be used with other marketing and communication tools.

Discussion

Brand Message Strategy

According to the findings, mass message strategy did not make any difference in the commercials of the brands. The radio message categories and the message subcategories do not differentiate brands significantly. Theoretically, new products should fit into the informational category because advertisers want inform consumers that the brand is new and different from other existing brands. The failure of testing the hypothesis may derive from the brand itself and its product category of brands.

As mentioned in the limitations, some brands used in the study were the subbrands of well-established brands. They have already generated brand equity. In addition, the product category is beer, a low involvement product. Advertisers may not necessarily employ informational strategies close to introduce the brands.

The Informational Strategy

Although the main message strategy failed to support the hypotheses that they would have an effect on brand managers, the informational variables involving brand information, a content factor that significantly is the commercial of the successful brand information about new product or new improved products, such as attributes, value, safety, and convenience issues, had positive effects on the success of the brands.¹⁷ The results provided that variables concerning the product features and superiority helped differentiate the commercials of the successful brands from those of the less-successful brands. This suggests that it is important for a commercial to explicitly demonstrate the information about customer superiority claims, which would reinforce the functional and emotional benefits of the product. This also implies that although message strategy had no effect on the success of brands, it is preferable to use unique selling proposition strategy or persuasive strategy in promoting the new brands.

Advertising theme and appeals are critical to differentiate brand messages. It is beneficial to include an advertisement with a technological and futuristic tone and commercial content to represent innovation. This finding is consistent with the suggestion of Aaker (1984) that in order to reflect leadership, a brand must sub-innovation within the product class—whether a brand is moving ahead technologically.

Among other necessary advertising appeals are suspenseful tone and safety appeal. It can be reasonably implied that a suspenseful tone will attract the audience's attention. Safety appeal will boost total purchases because consumers will find they "trust" the brand.

It is recommended that advertisers avoid a warm and caring or sustainable tone.

The master theme appeals have a negative effect on the success of the brands, most probably due to the nature of the category. There is often viewed as rough or rugged, a warm or adorable advertising message might make the brand appear weak.

Information about packaging also negatively affected the success of the brands. Usually, in introducing a new brand, the package or label information is critical. Packages of beer are usually almost identical and communicating this as a variable might discourage consumer purchase. However, showing the package of new brands on the screen is still important because advertisers must get the consumer aware and recall the brand name and its package.

The results also revealed the variables which did not exist in top of commercial information about price, economy/savings, free delivery, guarantee, and research results about the product did not make any difference in the success of the brands. This could be because beer is a low-involvement product and new learning or the information concerning price, availability, economy or research is strengthen brand manager does not interest consumers. Graphic displays, welfare appeal, and an economy or emotional tone did not affect the success of the brands. There is no need to include these variables in advertising messages because they do not influence a consumer's attitude.

Comparisons to other products did not affect these commercials. No significant differences were found in this item between a successful brand or a less-successful brand. This also suggests that comparative strategy does not work well in full-on brands.

Leadership Traits

Similar to the motivational variables, certain leadership traits in commercial managers helped successful brands differentiate themselves from their competing peers. These traits included knowledge, strength of conviction, and fluency of speech.

The three traits represented a key construct of presentation credibility. The construct is critical in advertising, managers to promote a trial purchase of a new brand. Mithrasani (1981) was amongst the first to suggest that credibility appears to be the necessary element across all product categories because credibility implies "credulous of belief."

The reason-credibility affects the success of brands is because it is combined in persuasion. In turn, this leads to brand choice. Asker et al. (1994) point out that consumers view the information as valid as coming from a source, with sources varying in 'credibility.' The more credible the source, the more persuasive the ad is likely to be in getting its audience to accept its message.

Two traits were found to have a negative effect on successful advertising. The first is "inactivity/ness." This trait is closely related to issues concerning the "substantive ability" and "virtue and caring" issues of the content of the motivational elements found in this study. These items seem to be the opposite of the "responsible" variable which did had a positive effect on the success of the brands. This suggests that it is not appropriate to demonstrate a beer brand as a delinquent or weak man.

Another detrimental trait is "ability to select cooperation." It had a negative effect on the success of the brands. This is probably because beer is often thought of as a fun, friendly, and social product. Brands should not be portrayed as dominant because this can create unfavorable attitudes toward the brand.

Implications For Advertisers

Building strong brands in the introductory stage is a critical task for advertisers. Creative strategy has a potential tool for advertisers and creative people in selecting which the stimuli or advertisements will have a high probability of being processed correctly by the target audience. Although there are various recommendations for creative strategies, an investigation of the elements in commercial messages which can differentiate brands is wanted. This study aimed to identify those stimuli with the greatest potential for success within the first category.

Advertising can also have implications for building a strong brand and managing brand equity. Advertisements of a successful roll-out brand contribute to establishing the image of the brand in the PCM introductory stage. The image could be the platform of brand equity the brand would gradually generate in the subsequent stages.

Table 3-1 summarizes some guidelines for advertisers as suggested by this study.

Table 3-1

Guidelines for Advertisers as Suggested by This Study

Emotional variables

Use	Do Not Use	Indifferent
Superiority claim New product or overimproved product feature	Packaging Functional usage Comparative	Price Economy/ savings Availability Guarantee Independent Research result Company-sponsored research result
Setup Convenience in use Value Technological features		

Table 3.1-continued

Use	Do Not Use	Indifferent
Successful halcyon appeal		Reveals results from unintended source Graphic Display Wishes appeal Doesn't Compare with other products Unnecessary

Leadership traits

Use	Do Not Use
Knowledge Strength of conviction Fluency of speech	Admiration Ability to initiate cooperation

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to investigate the motivational elements in television commercials which contributed to the success of brands during the brand introduction. Certain elements were conceptualized in commercials, which differentiated the successful brands from the less-successful brands. These elements are message content, creative operational elements, and leadership traits. In the introductory stage, a new brand must be rationally demonstrated to be new and superior. The brand information should demonstrate the features, innovation, and superiority of the product. Advertising motivational variables must get attention and be persuasive. Leadership traits, especially credibility, must be reinforced as brand managers in order to strengthen the consumer's confidence and reliability on the brand.

In the introduction stage, the best advertising must combine both meaningful content and brilliant creative execution. This suggests that advertisement must not only communicate what the product can do for consumers, but they should also hold a strong image of the brand in the consumer's mind. The image the brand establishes in this stage would differentiate it from other products.

Directions for Future Research

For future research, the limitations which influenced the results of the present study should be avoided. The most important constraint was reliability. The results the statistical reliability of this study were relatively low and the size of the sample was small, so a generalization of the findings was limited. The study should be replicated with a greater number of commercials and a stronger source of reliability checks.

Another limitation was the violation of present research design. As mentioned, criterion related validity was not in this study. Future research should strengthen the validity by considering structural validity rather than using sales or market share as a measure of the success of brands. In doing so, the structural variables which exist in persuasive commercials can be determined. It is reasonable to believe that behavioral variables such as intent to purchase or purchase rates were accurate criterion for measuring the success of advertising.

Because the results of this study were limited to brands of beer, differences in product category should be taken into account for future research. It is possible whether given product category could have different variables.

This study was also limited to television commercials. Advertisers can disseminate brand messages through various vehicles, and further investigations should be conducted in other media options.

APPENDIX A EXERCUTIONAL VARIABLE RELATED TO ADVERTISING-EFFECTIVENESS

Authors: Hisey, R. Richardson, J., and Babiner, B. (1994)

Title of study: The effects of successful communication in television advertising.

Exercution variable

Principal character's
expressions in advertisement
Weak

Response variable

Heads or tails
Likable spokesperson
Humorous mood
Easy telling
Number of scenes
Number of artifacts
Ideas type or "color"
Emphasized
demonstration
Balance of picture to
color or unknown
Comparison suggested by
shape or environment

Author: Malhotra, N. (1983).

Title of study: Copy factors related to persuasive writing.

Copy factors

Did a good job of making its
point
Clear
Informative
A good way to show the product

Transactional factors

Good topic
Not offensive
Expressive
Appropriate
Nothing included
Livable

Empathy/self-involvement factor

Would enjoy being in space
 Got a kick out of it
 It was personal and intimate
 Feel I have experienced the same thing
 It captured my attention
 It appealed to people like myself

Stimulation factor

Fast
 Sharp
 Held my attention
 Interesting

Credibility

Realistic
 Believable
 Scientific
 Factual (not misleading)
 Shared how I feel
 Compelling

Author: Stewart, D., and Porter, D. (1990)

Title of study: Effective television advertising: a study of 1200 commercials

Product variables

Commonness of use
 Broad name recognition product use
 Broad-differentiating claim
 Opening surprise/suspense
 Demonstration of product in use
 Demonstration of results of use
 Recently tested product in its market
 Live action
 Believable/credible
 Informal comparison with unnamed competitors
 Sensory
 New product or new features
 Continuity of series
 Actor playing role of principle character
 Family-oriented product

Segment variables

Compositional graphics
 Number/length
 Attribution/graphics major focus
 Conservative traditional
 Male principal character
 No principal character
 Outdoors
 Total propositions
 Total appeals
 Endogenous sell
 Number of on screen character

Features of New Product Concepts

Level	Comprehensiveness	Focusness
Flavor	Brand-differentiating message	Product attributes/components
Auditory memory device	Convenience in use	Company identification
Brand-differentiating message	Auditory memory device	Convenience in use
Brand persistence	Brand prominence	Brand-differentiating message
On-screen characters	Flavor	Service graphics
Convenience in use	Front-end impact	Continuity
Front-end impact		Brand prominence

Features of Established Product Concepts

Level	Comprehensiveness	Focusness
Brand-differentiating message	Brand-differentiating message	Brand-differentiating message
Flavor	Product benefits	Storyboard/animation
Product benefits	User satisfaction	Product attitude
User satisfaction	Time until abandonment	Adverse rating
Brand sign-off	Flavor	User satisfaction
Product	Storyboard/animation	
Storyboard/animation		
Auditory memory device		
Company identification		

Authors: Ogilvy, D. and Rappaport, J. (1982)

Title of study: Research on advertising responses that work and don't work.

Positive variables

Positive reviews
 Humor (unless preposition)
 Believable characters (personality)
 Clear offers
 New information
 Credible source (testimonials)
 Recommendations
 Support image (uniform price)
 Consistent with key idea
 Visual setting
 Memorable (only if repeated)
 Curious and Animation (Children only)

Negative variables

Celebrities
 A lot of very short scenes
 and easy changes of situation
 No pictures shown
 No loud voice shown

APPENDIX B
FACTORS OF COMPREHENSION
AND PERCEPTION OF NEW PRODUCT COMMERCIALS

Author: Stewart, B. and Forns, D. (1984)

Title of study: Effective television advertising: A study of 138 commercials.

Prediction of Comprehension of New Product Commercials

Brand-differentiating message
Convenience in use
Auxiliary sensory stimuli
Brand prominence
Thrust
Emotional impact

Prediction of Perception of New Product Commercials

Product attributes/benefits
Company identification
Convenience in use
Brand-differentiating message
Stereotyping
Continuity
Brand prominence

Factor Structure of Advertising/Educational Codes

Factor 1: Brand-differentiating message

Factor 2: Convenience in use
Information on convenience in use (+ .76)
Superiority claim (+ .77)
Direct comparison with other product (+ .78)

Factor 3: Auditory memory (low)

Music is a major element (49)

Memorable rhythms, slogans, or sentences (43)

Music program (41)

Factor 4: Brand prominence

Time package is on screen (43)

Time brand name or logo is on screen (34)

Time actual product is on screen (44)

Length of commercial (32)

Times brand name or logo is on screen (46)

Factor 5: Music

Musical tone (78)

Considerable tone (78)

Total emotional tone (50)**

Wholesome healthy tone (34)

Factor 6: Eyes-and impact

Eyes-and impact (73)

Conversational/personal tone (71)

Modern/contemporary tone (40)

Polly/personalized class (39)

Factor 7: Product information/components

Information on components, contents or ingredients (48)

Artificial or ingredients are major appeal (41)

Information on nutrition or health (40)

Total information (54)**

Total appeals (30)**

Consumer's rational tone (33)

Factor 7: Company identification

Company manufacturing or distributing product is identified (71)

Product is directly handled (42)

Brand name reinforces product benefits (40)

Factor 8: Serious/graphic

Serious/serious tone (73)

Graphic displays (70)

Factor 9: Continuity

Continuity of action (30)

Number of negatives (40)

****Total associated items:** The number of associations evoked by the environmental, the sum of the following variables:

- Cues/identifiers
- Hard sell
- Word advertising
- Modest/contemporary
- Wholesome/healthy
- Endearing/pleasant
- Conservative/soldier
- Old fashioned/traditional

- Happy/pleasant
- Excited/loved
- Demonic/terror
- Unpleasant/irritated
- Relaxed/comfortable
- Glamorous
- Humorous
- Suspenseful
- Rough/tough

**** Total information:** The number of different pieces of information presented in the environment, the sum of the following variables:

- Price
- Value
- Quality
- Economy/savings
- Dependability/ reliability/ durability
- Security information (safety, fireproof, leak, resistant)

- Aesthetic claims (style, color)
- Components: systems, or ingredients
- Availability
- Packaging
- Guarantee or warranty
- Safety

- Nonconformity
- Independent research results
- Company-sponsored research results
- Research results from unaffiliated source
- New uses
- Company image or reputation

- Results of using (either tangible or intangible)
- User's satisfaction/like/dislike/loyalty
- Superiority claim
- Continuance in use
- Special offer or event
- New product or new/improved product features
- Use occasion
- Characteristics or usage of users

*** Total appeals: The number of different psychological capitals studied in the manuscript, the sum of the following variables:

- Sexual appeal
- Combat appeal
- Safety appeal
- Employment appeal
- Welfare appeal
- Social appeal
- Self-esteem or self-image
- Achievement
- Experience, resources, history

APPENDIX C FINDINGS OF LEADERSHIP TRAIT STUDY

Table C.1

Characteristics of Leaders According to the 1998 and 1970 Surveys of Business Executives

Characteristic	Number of Positive Findings		Number of Data or Negative Findings
	1998 Survey	1970 Survey	1998 Survey Only
Physical Characteristics			
Activity, energy	5	34	
Age	18	6	8
Appearance, grooming	12	4	3
Height	9		4
Weight	2		4
Social Background			
Education	22	14	5
Social status	13	19	2
Motivation	5	6	
Intelligence and Ability			
Intelligence	22	23	12
Judgment, decisiveness	9	6	
Knowledge	11	12	
Fluency of speech	13	12	
Personality			
Adaptability	10		
Adjustment, versatility		11	
Aggressiveness, assertiveness		12	
Assertiveness	6	4	
Assertiveness/dominance	11	11	6
Emotional balance, control	11	14	8
Enthusiasm		3	
Extroversion	5	3	6

Table C-1—continued

Characteristic	Number of Positive Findings		Number of Days or Negative Findings
	1948 Survey	1970 Survey	1948 Survey Days
Independence—nonconformity		13	
Objectivity—rough moderation		7	
Objectivity—objectivity	7	13	
Personal energy—ritual conduct	6	97	
Reasonableness	17	28	
Self-confidence	7		
Strength of character		6	
Tolerance of stress			
Task-related Characteristics			
Drive to achieve—drive to excel	7	21	
Drive for responsibility	12	17	
Enterprising, initiative		18	
Persistence against obstacles	12		
Responsibility in the pursuit of objectives	17	6	
Task motivation	6	13	
Social Characteristics			
Ability to make suggestions	7	7	
Administration ability		19	
Assertiveness		4	
Cooperativeness	11	3	
Harshness		4	
Popularity, prestige	10	3	
Sociality, interpersonal skills	14	23	
Social participation	20	6	
Tact, diplomacy	6	4	

Source: Bass, 1990.

Note: In the surveys, a positive, or significant, relationship means that (1) a given trait was significantly correlated with some measure of the effectiveness of leaders, (2) a sample of leaders was found to differ significantly from a sample of followers on the trait, (3) a sample of effective leaders was found to differ significantly from a sample of ineffective leaders on the trait, or (4) a sample of high status leaders (such as top managers) was found to differ significantly from a sample of low status leaders (such as first-line supervisors) on the trait.

APPENDIX D RULES FOR CODING COMMERCIALS

Rules for Coding Commercials

Directions

You will be shown television commercials from six different brands of beer. You are asked to answer a number of questions to help the research investigators learn about brand awareness. The questions in this study are designed into three sections: 1) brand message typology, 2) illustrational elements, and 3) leadership status. The code book will help you understand the operational definitions for answering the questions. If you cannot decide on a question, skip it temporarily. Then, return to the question later. All questions must be answered. Since several of the commercials may be too short to answer more than a few questions at a time, feel free to review the commercial as many times as necessary until all questions are answered. Please answer all the questions on each section for one brand before moving onto questions pertaining to another brand.

Your assistance with this study is greatly appreciated. Thank you.

APPENDIX I CODEBOOK AND LISTS OF OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS

Mass Message Typology

Directions: Each commercial should be assigned one specific category. If you encounter an ad which you are actually uncertain as to which category it should be coded, return to this list of operational definitions and study it thoroughly before making a coding decision. Then try again to select a specific category for the ad. If you are still unable to specify the category, code the ad as "other."

If it is possible, each commercial should first be categorized as one of two general types: 1) Informational/Rational or 2) Image/Emotional. The basis for your decision should be the primary focus of the ad. Watch the commercial and decide what the primary focus or overall type is.

INFORMATIONAL/RATIONAL ads primarily focus on information or facts about the brand or product presented in some logical way to suggest some reason or justification for buying the brand or product.

IMAGE/EMOTIONAL-type ads primarily focus on creating an image or mood. Sometimes these ads are referred to as "soft sell" ads. Usually (but not always) there is little or no information content present in the sense of facts about the brand or product. If such information is presented, you should decide that it does not constitute the primary focus of the ad before coding the ad as "image/emotional."

After you have determined which of these two general types best describes an ad (Informational/Rational vs. Image/Emotional), there are several sub-categories of each type.

Types of Informational/Rational Ads

- 1) **COMPARATIVE:** These ads explicitly mention comparing brands. Explicit comparisons may be made of the attributes, characteristics, or benefits of using the advertised brand relative to an explicitly named competing brand.
- 2) **UNIQUE SELLING PROPOSITION:** These ads explicitly claim or assert that the advertised brand is unique or is the only one available to contain some ingredient, possess some attribute or characteristic, or provide some benefit or using the brand. (Note: If competing brands are explicitly mentioned, then the ad should be coded "Comparative" even if uniqueness is the explicitly-claimed.)
- 3) **PRESUMPTIVE:** These ads do not explicitly claim comparisons, but claims or assertions of some sort of superiority are made. It should be clear: first, that the ad is of the "Informational/Rational type" and that there is no mention of competing brands or explicit claims of uniqueness, but the primary focus is on suggesting (through factual-type statements (claims or assertions)) that the advertised brand is superior for some reason. If such statements implying superiority are substantiated or directly proved through some sort of empirical test or measurement, then code the commercial "presumptive." If it is doubtful, however, that these statements could be substantiated, empirically tested, measured, or directly proved, then consider the hyperbolic category.

4. **HYPERBOLIC** These ads are very similar to the "promotional" category. The difference lies in the extent to which the claims or assertions can be substantiated, tested, measured, or directly proved. Clearly these ads are not of the "informational/rational type" and there is no explicit claim of uniqueness or merits of anything inside. But the primary focus of the ad is to leading the audience to believe that the advertised brand is superior for some reason. The primary message may be stated, claimed, asserted, or strongly implied, however, such statements, claims, assertions, or implications are not reliably substantiated, empirically testable, measurable, or amenable to direct proof. Typically, the product will claim to be the best, better, finest without identification or disclosure or attribute.
5. **GENERIC INFO** These ads do not focus a particular brand but on the product class in general. Again, it is the primary focus of the ad that is important. If the product-class is the primary focus and not a particular brand, but the ad is clearly "informational," then it is "generic-info."
6. **OTHER-INFO** Every attempt should be made to code an "informational" commercial into one of the above categories. If, after examining the ad, you feel that it is "informational" but does not fit into any of the above-categories, then code it "Other info."

Type of Image/Emotional Aids

1. **USER-IMAGE:** These ads primarily focus on the users of a brand and their lifestyles. The main thrust of the ad is on the people or persons who use the brand, rather than on the brand itself.
2. **BRAND-IMAGE:** These ads primarily focus on the image surrounding the brand itself. The subtext is creating a brand "personality." The primary focus is on the image of the brand instead of users of the brand. Quality, status, prestige, etc. are often attributed to the brand.
3. **USE-OCCLUSION:** These ads focus primarily on the experiences of using the brand or on those situations where use of the brand is most appropriate. They attempt to create an association between situations where the product might be used, or particular experiences of use, and the advertised brand.
4. **GENERIC-IMAGE:** These ads do not focus on a particular brand but on the product class as a whole. While "Image/Emotional" is where the primary focus is on the product class instead of a particular brand.
5. **OTHER-IMAGE:** Every attempt should be made to code an "Image/Emotional" commercial into one of the above categories. If, after examining the ad, you feel that it is "Image/Emotional" but does not fit into any of the above categories, then code it "Other-Image."

Extended Response

Directions: Each respondent can be rated how well a respondent on emotional variable or can be treated how long or how often an emotional element is. If you encounter an emotional element that you are uncertain its meaning, return to this list of operational influences and study it carefully before making decisions. Then try again to rate how well the respondent is.

Information Content

1. **Price:** Refers to the amount the consumer must pay for the product or service, this may be in absolute terms: the suggested retail price, or relative terms, the % percent off sale.
2. **Value:** Refers to some combination of price and quality or quantity, as in more for the money. Better quality at a low price, the best value for the best dollar.
3. **Quality:** Refers to how good the product or service is, may refer to craftsmanship under attention during manufacture, use of quality (better, best) ingredients or components, length of time to produce or create the product.
4. **Economy/savings:** Refers to saving money or time either in the original purchase or in the use of the product relative to other products in the category.
5. **Dependability/reliability/durability:** Information concerning how long the product will last without repair/ service records, and so on.

8. **Sensory information** (taste, fragrance, touch, sound): Information concerning a sensory experience—"smell April fresh," "tastes homemade," "feel silky smooth," "smooth taste," "luxurious comfort."
9. **Aesthetic claims** (style, color): Information concerning appearance, status, beauty—and to us of the product when whole, packaged or when prepared in final form.
10. **Components, contents, or ingredients**: What went into the making or manufacture of the product—for example, "contains leeches," "made with pudding." These contents should be of the product purchased, not ingredients added to the product by the consumer in preparation for use.
11. **Availability**: Any information concerning the place(s) the consumer may purchase or otherwise obtain the product—for example, "available in supermarkets," "look for it in the dairy section." May also refer to places where the product is not available—for example, "not available in all areas."
12. **Packaging**: Information about the packaging of the product—for example, "look for the package with the red spots," "look for our special two-in-one package," "the package is reusable," "in the environment, one package."
13. **Guarantee or warranty**: Refers to any information concerning the promise of a guarantee or warranty, including but not limited to money-back offers, offers to repair or replace the product in the event of problems, or offers to replace the product if the consumer is dissatisfied or has a problem.
14. **Safety**: Information concerning the safety of the product—for example, "low-salt or salt-free recipe," "nut-free," "non-flammable delicate hair."

- 13 *Negative health*. Information concerning the nutritional or health related characteristics of the product—for example, “fortified with vitamins B¹²” the formula denotes nutritional “valueless over-poor blood.”
- 14 *Independent research results*. Information offered about tests of the product or of product users that were carried out by an identified individual or organization other than the company manufacturing or distributing the product, such as Underwriter’s Laboratory, a leading university, or the U.S. government. Such tests may concern objective product characteristics (“lasts twice as long”) or may be related to user preferences (“preferred by two-thirds of people surveyed”).
- 15 *Company-sponsored research results*. Information about tests of the product or users of the product that were carried out by the company manufacturing or distributing the product—for example, the Pepsi challenge.
- 16 *Research results from unidentified source*. Information about tests of the product or users of the product when the source of the test results is not identified.
- 17 *New uses*. Refers to any information about a new way to use an established product—for example, “use X brand paper cups for cooking and serving with both,” “use X paper,” “use Y boiling socks to deodorize refrigerator.”
- 18 *Company image or reputation*. Refers to any information about the image or reputation of the company that manufactures or distributes the product—for example, “we’ve been in business longer than anyone else,” “we say harder” the other guys,³ “follow me out business.”

- 19 **Benefits of using (other benefits or strengths)** Refers to any information concerning the customers associated with the use of the product. "Make you feel healthier"—or a negative form—"won't yellow floors."
- 20 **Give a satisfaction/delusion/loyalty** Refers to any information concerning user's satisfaction, preference for the brand, or length of the time consumer has used the advertised product—for example, "I'd never give up my Biko," "It always was."
- 21 **Superiority claim** Information that claims that advertised product is better than competitive products or an older version of the advertised product in some particular way(s).
- 22 **Convenience factor** Information concerning the ease with which the product may be obtained, prepared, used, or disposed of.
- 23 **Special offer or event** Information concerning special event such as sales, contests, free-for-one deals, premiums, or rebates in exchange for a specified limited time.
- 24 **New product or new/improved product features** Refers to any information concerning a new product introduction, new components, ingredients, features, or characteristics of an existing product or an improvement (qualitative or quantitative) on any feature, component, ingredient, or characteristic of an existing product—for example, "new and improved," "new with 50 percent less sugar," "new lighter . . ." "new stronger . . ." "new with built in flask."

- 15 Use occasions. Information that clearly suggests an appropriate use occasion or situation for the product—for example, “buy this for the Christmas season,” “enjoy this at a holiday party,” “the best for special occasions.”
- 16 Characteristics or usage of users. Refers to any information concerning the type(s) of individual who might use the advertised product—for example, “for the young at heart,” “for the busy career women.”

Brand and Product Identification

- 17 Product is double branded. Refers to the product that has two brand names—for example, Kungles Kid’s Chaps, Camo All Ford Farmout.
- 18 Company manufacturing or distributing product is identified. Refers to the company manufacturing or distributing the product identified in the commercial, either as part of the brand name (Ford Farmout)—or explicitly (“another fine product from General Foods”). (Note: Do not include copyright identifiers as company identifiers.)

Components of Commercial Message

- 19 Brand name reinforces product benefits. Refers to the name of the advertised brand that can suggest or reinforce the benefits of the product. For example, some brand names provide no product information (Tide, Das, Cheer, Clorox); some brand names reinforce a product benefit somewhat (Down, Camo, Life saver, Rachet, Flonase, 711 Tires, Anyday Party-Inner), while some brand names state exactly (or almost) what product is or will do (Bona, Dog Biscuits) or why using equates closely identified with the product category or particular benefit (Kodak, Intimate Care).

Visual Devices

- 10 **Graphic display** Refers to the commercial that uses graphic displays or charts as part of its presentation. Such graphics may be computer generated.

Literary Devices

- 11 **Memorable phrases, slogans, or mantras** Nonmusical phrases or other statements (memory aid devices) may be incorporated as part of a song, but must also stand alone, apart from music—for example, “You’re in good hands with Allstate.” That’s a piece of the ads!

Promises, Appeals, or Selling Propositions

- 12 **Attribution or ingredients are major appeal** A major focus of the commercial is to communicate about how the product is made (for example, cars or manufacturing) or ingredients (for example, the only toothpaste with natural flavor!).
- 13 **Sexual appeal** Main focus of commercial is sex-related issues.
- 14 **Comfort appeal** Main focus of commercial is on issues appealing to various comforts (soft chairs, cool climate).
- 15 **Safety appeal** Main focus of commercial is on issues appealing to being free from fear or physical danger.
- 16 **Enjoyment appeal** Main focus of commercial is on fun about enjoying life (or fun, having good food and drink, and so on).
- 17 **Wellness appeal** Main focus is on caring or providing for others (for example, gift giving).
- 18 **Social approval** Main focus of commercial is on belonging, winning friends, obtaining approval of others.

- 26 Self-esteem or self-love: Main focus of commercial is on feeling better about oneself, improving oneself, being a better person.
- 46 Achievement: Main focus of commercial is on showing superiority over others, getting ahead, winning.
- 47 Excitement, sensation, variety: Main focus of commercial is on adding excitement, thrills, variety to life, seeking freedom.

Commercial Tone or Atmosphere

- 42 Casual/comfortable
- 43 Hard sell
- 44 Warm and cozy
- 45 Modern/contemporary
- 46 Wholesome/family
- 47 Technological/futuristic
- 48 Conservative/traditional
- 49 Old-fashioned/nostalgic
- 50 Happy/fun-loving
- 51 Cool/cool look
- 52 Raunchy/sexual
- 53 Cheap/disreputable
- 54 Relaxed/comfortable
- 55 Glamorous
- 56 Humorous
- 57 Successful

18. Rough/Tagged

Comparisons

- 19. *Direct-comparison with other product*: A comparison is identifiability issue. May also be a direct-comparison with an old version of the product advertised.
- 20. *Puffery/unsolicited claim*: Product is declared best, better, finest, without identification of dimension or evidence.

Commercial structure

- 41. *Front-and aspect*: The first two seconds of the commercial create suspense, questions, surprise, drama, or something that otherwise grabs attention.

Commercial Format

- 62. *Continuity of scenes*: Commercial has a single story-throughout with or end, a common theme, or issue ties the whole commercial together from beginning to end. This may be an interview with a single individual, shot-of life, or any other format that involves continuity of scenes.
- 63. *Vignettes*: A series of two or more scenes that could stand alone, no continuing storyline but several independent stories (which may convey the same message). Multiple interviews would be an example. Has no continuity of scenes.

Music and Dancing

- 64. *Music as a major element*: Refers to the lyrics of the music used as the commercial carry a product message—for example, suspense, sexuality.
- 65. *Music present*: Refers to music present in the commercial in any form.

Commercial Speech

- 66. **Point-differentiating message:** Refers to the principal message of the commercial compares the product being advertised or should any product make this claim.
- The commercial must make it clear that the product is unique, that is, the commercial must explicitly indicate the uniqueness or difference of the product.

Timing and Counting Items

- 67. **Time package is on screen (seconds)**
- 68. **Time brand name is on screen (seconds)**
- 69. **Time actual product is on screen (seconds)**
- 70. **Length of commercial (seconds)**
- 71. **Times brand name or logo is on screen times (number)**

Leadership Traits

Directions: There are no operational definitions for each trait in this section. Please try to use your own mental images for each trait. There is no "right" or "wrong" answers to these questions. The question in this section simply attempts to measure the leadership traits demonstrated by the leaders in the commercials. But as leaders leaders have their traits, so do leaders. By classifying these traits you will be helping the researchers to better understand which traits are most useful in producing advertising.

Physical Characteristics

1. Attractiveness

Intelligence and Ability

2. Intelligence
3. Judgment, discernment
4. Knowledge
5. Fluency of speech

Emotionality

6. Assertiveness
7. Adjustment, normality
8. Aggressiveness, Assertiveness
9. Altruism
10. Anxiousness, Shyness
11. Emotional balance, control
12. Enthusiasm

- 13 Intervention
- 14 Independence, nonconformity
- 15 Objectivity, tough-mindedness
- 16 Originality, creativity
- 17 Personal integrity, ethical conduct
- 18 Resourcefulness
- 19 Self-confidence
- 20 Strength of conviction
- 21 Tolerance of stress

Individual Characteristics

- 22 Drive to achieve, desire to excel
- 23 Drive for responsibility
- 24 Enterprise, initiative
- 25 Persistence against obstacles
- 26 Responsibility in the pursuit of objectives
- 27 Task orientation

Social Characteristics

- 28 Ability to elicit cooperation
- 29 Assertiveness
- 30 Cooperativeness
- 31 Warmth
- 32 Popularity, prestige
- 33 Sensitivity, interpersonal skills

100. *Small polynesian*

APPENDIX F
CODING QUESTIONNAIRE

Code's Name _____

Commercial's Brand _____

I. MAIN MESSAGE

Please first check either A or B, then circle the number for the appropriate subcategory within that; lower that first describes the main message for each commercial you view. A separate coding sheet will be filled out for each commercial.

- _____ **A. INFORMATIONAL/RATIONAL** (factual, relevant brand facts in a clear and logical manner)
- 1 **COMPARATIVE** (draw or explicitly mention competing brands)
 - 2 **UNIQUE SELLING PROPOSITION** (explicitly claims or mentions of uniqueness)
 - 3 **PROBATIVE** (factually based but no claim of uniqueness or mention of competitors)
 - 4 **HYPERBOLIC** (build around exaggerated or outrageous claims)
 - 5 **GENERIC INFO** (factual message focused on product class)
 - 6 **OTHER-INFO**
- _____ **B. IMAGE/EMOTIONAL** (primary focus on creating an image)
- 1 **USER IMAGE** (focus on the users of a brand and their lifestyle)
 - 2 **BRAND IMAGE** (image of brand itself (quality, prestige, status))
 - 3 **USER OCCASION** (focus on the experience of using the brand)
 - 4 **GENERIC IMAGE** (image of product class)
 - 5 **OTHER-IMAGE**

II. FUNCTIONAL PARAMETERS

Disclosure: Rated on a ten-point scale, ranging from Not at all (0) to Excellent (9), please rate how well the ad communicates each of the following functional variables. If you encounter a variable which you are uncertain about measuring, return to the rule-of-coding and study our operational definition thoroughly.

	NOT AT ALL	EXCELLENT
1. Price	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
2. Value	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
3. Quality	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
4. Economy/savings	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
5. Dependability/ reliability/ durability	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
6. Sensory information (taste, fragrance, touch, sound(s))	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
7. Aesthetic claims (styling, color)	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
8. Components, contents, or ingredients	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
9. Availability	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
10. Packaging	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
11. Guarantee or warranty	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
12. Safety	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
13. Healthfulness	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
14. Independent research results	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
15. Company-sponsored research results	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
16. Research results from unidentified source	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	

	NOT AT ALL	EXCELLENT								
17. New uses	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
18. Company image or reputation	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
19. Results of using (either tangible or intangible)	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
20. User's satisfaction/identification/loyalty	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
21. Superiority claim	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
22. Convenience in use	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
23. Special offer or event	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
24. New product or well-known product features	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
25. Use occasion	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
26. Characteristics or image of users	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
27. Product is double branded	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
28. Company manufacturing or distributing product is identified	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
29. Brand names reinforce product benefits	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
30. Graphic display	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
31. Memorabilia, slogans, or mantras	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
32. Attribution of responsibility for major appeal	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
33. Sexual appeal	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
34. Gender appeal	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
35. Safety appeal	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
36. Expertise appeal	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
37. Welfare appeal	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

	NOT AT ALL	EXCELLENT
36 Social approval	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
39 Self-esteem or self-image	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
40 Acknowledged	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
41 Excitement, stimulation, variety	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
42 Credible/able	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
43 Had will	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
46 Warm and caring	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
48 Modern/contemporary	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
49 Wholesome/honesty	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
47 Technological/flavorful	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
48 Conservative/traditional	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
49 Old-fashioned/unique	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
50 Happy/less boring	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
51 Cool/less tacky	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
52 Spontaneous	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
53 Unsexy/sex-oriented	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
54 Balanced/comfortable	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
55 Glamorous	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
56 Humorous	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
57 Successful	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
58 Rough/rugged	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
59 Direct comparison with other product	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	

	POOR AT ALL	EXCELLENT
60. Stylistic/visual/technical skills	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
61. Theme and impact	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
62. Continuity of action	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
63. Typing	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
64. Most a major element	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
65. Most present	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
66. Head-differentiating message	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	

Timing and Counting Questions

67. Time package is on screen _____ seconds
68. Time brand name is on screen _____ seconds
69. Time actual production on screen _____ seconds
70. Length of commercial _____ seconds
71. Times legal name or logo is on screen times _____ (number)

III. LEACHMAN TRAITS

DIRECTIONS: Based on a ten-point scale, ranging from Not at all (0) to Excellent (9), please rate how well the brand demonstrates each of the following traits to its consumers.

	NOT AT ALL	EXCELLENT
1. Activity/energy	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
2. Intelligence	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
3. Judgment, discernment	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
4. Knowledge	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
5. Fluency of speech	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
6. Adaptability	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
7. Adjustment, comality	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
8. Agreeableness, Assertiveness	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
9. Attraction	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
10. Appearance/demeanor	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
11. Emotional balance, control	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
12. Enthusiasm	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
13. Reserve	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
14. Independence, nonconformity	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
15. Dignity, tough-mindedness	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
16. Originality, creativity	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	

	NOT AT ALL	EXCELLENT								
17 Personal integrity, ethical conduct	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
18 Reasonableness	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
19 Self-confidence	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
20 Strength of conviction	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
21 Tolerance of stress	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
22 Diverse culture, aware to race	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
23 Drive for responsibility	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
24 Enthusiasm, initiative	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
25 Persistence against obstacles	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
26 Responsibility to the pursuit of objectives	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
27 Task awareness	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
28 Ability to enter cooperation	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
29 Assertiveness	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
30 Cooperativeness	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
31 Naturalness	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
32 Popularity, prestige	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
33 Sensitivity, interpersonal skills	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
34 Social participation	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Sarnsorn Sathasorn was raised in Bangkok, Thailand, where he completed his primary and secondary schooling. After completing four years of undergraduate work at the Chulalongkorn University, he graduated with a bachelor's degree in Communications Arts in 1998.

In August of 1998, Sarnsorn began his studies for the Master of Arts in Mass Communication with a specialization in advertising at the University of Florida. He will receive his master's degree in May of 1999.

After graduation, Sarnsorn plans to continue his advertising career in Bangkok, Thailand.

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a thesis for the degree of Master of Arts in Mass Communications.


John C. Sutherland, Chair
Professor of Journalism and
Communications

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a thesis for the degree of Master of Arts in Mass Communications.


Joseph R. Foss
Professor of Journalism and
Communications

I certify that I have read this study and that in my opinion it conforms to acceptable standards of scholarly presentation and is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a thesis for the degree of Master of Arts in Mass Communications.


John D. Morris
Professor of Journalism and
Communications

This thesis was submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the College of Journalism and Communications and to the Graduate School and was accepted as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts in Mass Communications.

May, 1998


Lawrence H. Brown
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